BROWN'S
FIRST LESSONS IN
LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR



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BROWN'S FIRST LESSONS

IN

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

BY

M. B. HALL

Formerly Principal of Liberty Normal Institute

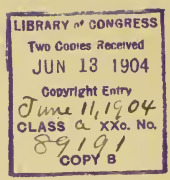
Liberty, N. Y.

NEW YORK

WILLIAM WOOD AND COMPANY

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ROBERT DRUMMOND, PRINTER, NEW YORK

PREFACE.

The author has intended to produce a little book which will be graded in matter sufficient for a three years' course. It consists of a series of lessons, each of which is both inductive and deductive, the amount of inductive work being greater at the beginning of the book.

Each lesson contains some grammatical facts for the pupil to learn, some questions for him to answer, and some written work for him to do. The pupil is also required to give a general connected talk about the lesson, and to follow with a written paper telling what he has learned about the subject.

If the teacher will require the pupil to learn each lesson thoroughly, when he has finished the book he will have acquired a systematic knowledge of the elementary principles of English grammar, and he will also have performed a sufficient amount of written work to enable him to express his thoughts readily and freely upon all subjects of which he has any definite practical knowledge. The pupil will then be prepared to take up the study of formal grammar with the ability to comprehend a full and intricate treatment of the subject.

From experience in teaching and observation of the various methods of presenting this subject the author is conscious

of the fact that a great amount of labor will be saved by the teacher in carrying out the methods used in this book, and the pupil will be required to do so much work that he will necessarily become skilful and practical in the application of the simple grammatical principles of English grammar.

The teacher's work will be, largely, to show the pupils more fully than can be given in the book, for want of space, how to learn each lesson; to question them; and to satisfy himself that the pupils have performed their work fully and properly.

A simple, practical system of diagrams has been inserted with the belief that the use of them will prove interesting and attractive to the pupil, and be an aid to him in the analysis of a sentence by exhibiting, through illustration, the relations which the several words sustain to one another in a sentence.

To acquire a knowledge of the simple elementary principles of English grammar it is important that the pupil should learn some facts concerning letters, their sounds, their combinations into syllables and words, and that words have different meanings in their various relations in the construction of sentences; that words are classed, according to use, into ten parts of speech; that under these ten heads, in their specific uses, they undergo some modifications; that to become familiar with such forms and uses the pupil must learn (memorize) the declensions of nouns and pronouns, the comparison of adjectives, and the conjugation of verbs; also learn the particular forms of the irregular verbs.

Such preliminary study gives a knowledge of the elementary principles of English grammar and prepares the pupil for a

regular course in formal grammar; and such a course is as essential to the study of practical grammar as notation, numeration, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division are to the successful study of practical arithmetic.

When such study of the subject is performed in the early days of school life children memorize their lessons more easily and remember them better than at any other period of school work.

This book is a modern application of the elementary principles and definitions of Goold Brown's admirable work on English grammar which, through the courtesy of the publishers, the author has been permitted to use.

The work given in this little book is sufficient to meet the requirements of the grades in all schools in which such elementary study is pursued.

Thanks are due to those authors from whose works quotations have been made, and to the publishers who have kindly permitted their use.

The Author.

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FIRST LESSONS
IN LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

LESSON I

NAMES OF PERSONS

1. John Curtis Hall.
2. John C. Hall.
3. Jno. C. Hall.
4. J. C. Hall.
5. J. C. H.

In 1, the full name of the person is given, and each word of the name begins with a capital letter. John Curtis is called the given name, Christian name, or baptismal name, and Hall, the surname or family name.

In 2, the letter C., followed by a period (.), is written instead of the word Curtis, and is called an initial letter.

In 3, Jno., followed by a period, is written for the word John and is called an abbreviation.

In 4, the initial letters J. C., each followed by a period, are called the initials of the Christian name, and represent the two words of the name or stand for them.

In 5, the letters J. C. H., each followed by a period, are called the initials of the name.

The name of a person as he signs it is called his signature. The name given to a child by its parents is called its given name or Christian name, and if the child is baptized at the time, it is called its baptismal name.

An abbreviation is two or more letters of a word used to represent the word or stand for it; as, Wm., for William; Chas., for Charles.

All names of persons are called proper names, and each name should always commence with a capital.

Each word in a name should begin with a capital; as Stephen Merritt Brown.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a Christian name? 2. What is a surname? 3. What is a signature? 4. What is meant by the initials of a name? 5. What class of names have you written? 6. What is Jno. called? 7. What is an abbreviation? 8. With what kind of letter does each word in a name commence?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write your name. 2. Write the names of five boys in this school. 3. Write the Christian names of five girls. 4. Copy the signatures of five of your schoolmates. 5. Write the names of five other persons whom you know. 6. Write the name of the President of the United States. 7. Write the name of the Governor of your State.

Write one name under another and number each name as you write it. Be sure that you spell each word correctly, and use capitals when necessary.

REVIEW EXERCISE

Let the pupil stand and in a connected manner tell what he knows about the lesson which he has studied.

Suggestions to the Pupil.—Tell what a given name is,—a surname,—an initial letter,—an abbreviation,—a proper name,—when capitals are used in writing names,—what a signature is,—and whatever else you have learned about the lesson.

NOTE.—This is a very important exercise, and should be required of every pupil, after each separate lesson has been learned throughout the book. It constitutes a ready review exercise, and lays the founda-

tion for public speaking. In fact, the pupil should be so familiar with the lesson that he can talk about it and explain every part of it without referring to the book.

LESSON II

ABBREVIATIONS

In Lesson I, you learned the meaning of an abbreviation. The following abbreviations are frequently used:

ABBREVIATIONS FOR THE MONTHS OF THE YEAR

Jan.	January.		July.
Feb.	February	Aug.	August.
	March.	Sept.	September.
Apr.	April.	Oct.	October.
	May.	Nov.	November.
	June.	Dec.	December.

ABBREVIATIONS FOR THE DAYS OF THE WEEK

Sun.	Sunday.	Thurs.	Thursday.
Mon.	Monday.	Frid.	Friday.
Tues.	Tuesday.	Sat.	Saturday.
Wed.	Wednesday.		

ABBREVIATIONS FOR THE NAMES OF PERSONS

Alex.	Alexander	Geo.	George.
Alf.	Alfred.	Hen.	Henry.
Benj.	Benjamin.	Wm.	William.
Chas.	Charles.	Jos.	Joseph.
Ed.	Edward.	Jno.	John.
Eliz.	Elizabeth.	Reb.	Rebecca.
Dan.	Daniel.	Hez.	Hezekiah.

OTHER ABBREVIATIONS

P.M.	afternoon.	qt.	quart.
A.M.	forenoon.	oz.	ounce.
No.	number.	ft.	foot.
St.	street.	in.	inch.
lb.	pound.	yd.	yard.

ABBREVIATIONS OF TITLES

Mr.	Mister.	A.M.	Master of Arts.
Mrs.	Mistress.	Hon.	Honorable.
Miss	A title prefixed to the name of a girl or unmarried woman. — Standard Dic.	Jun., Jr.	Junior.
		Pres.	President.
		Gov.	Governor.
		Gen.	General.
		Col.	Colonel.
Rev.	Reverend.	Supt.	Superintendent.
Dr.	Doctor or Debtor.	Ed.	Editor.
M.D.	Doctor of Medicine.	Prof.	Professor.
A.B.	Bachelor of Arts.		

NOTE.—The abbreviations may be used as an oral exercise in spelling. The teacher may give the abbreviation and the pupil may spell the word for which the abbreviation stands; also the word and let the pupil give the abbreviation.

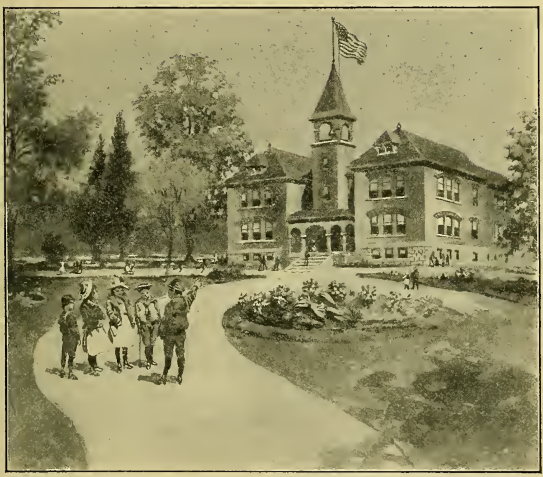
Exercise to be copied by the pupils; then used by the teacher for a dictation exercise.

1. Mr. George F. Thorp, No. 10 E. 66th St., New York City, N. Y.
2. Messrs. Stout & Williams, 101 Fifth Ave., New York City, N.Y.
3. Gov. B. B. Odell, Executive Mansion, Albany, N. Y.
4. Miss Nancy I. Moore, Sec. W. C. T. U., Grahamsville, Sullivan Co., N. Y.
5. The Fifth Avenue Hotel is situated at the junction of Fifth Avenue, Broadway, and 23d St., New York City.
6. Dr. W. S. Winter took a Broadway car at the corner of Chambers St. and Broadway and rode to 42d St. He then took a cross-town car to 42d St. Ferry. Here he took the Ontario & Western train for Liberty, a pretty little village in the interior of the State, about 120 miles from New York City.

LESSON III

LANGUAGE

We think about persons and things around us. What we think is called our THOUGHTS; and, in speaking or writing, we use WORDS to express our thoughts to others.



SCHOOL GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS

Language is the expression of thought in speaking or writing.

The words used in speaking are called SPOKEN LANGUAGE or SPEECH. The words used in writing are called WRITTEN LANGUAGE. PRINTED WORDS are another form of WRITTEN LANGUAGE.

When words are combined in a proper manner so as to express a thought which makes complete sense, they form what is called a SENTENCE.

EXAMPLES

1. Here is a picture of the school grounds and buildings.
2. The flag of our country, the Stars and Stripes, is waving from the top of the flag-pole.
3. Some boys and girls are in the yard.
4. The sun shines warm and bright this morning.
5. William is pointing towards the flag and talking.
6. Lillie, Mary, John, and Henry are listening to him.
7. The flowers on each side of the walk look very pretty.
8. The trees afford fine, cool, delightful shade in the summer.
9. The school-bell is now ringing.
10. The grass looks green, and the flowers are fragrant; for it is summer.
11. The four seasons of the year are spring, summer, autumn, and winter.

We may put words together so that they will not form a sentence; thus, William to-day, a new bought book has; but, if we combine them properly, they will make complete sense; as, William has bought a new book to-day.

A sentence is an assemblage of words which make complete sense; as, "This boy is now studying grammar."

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Copy neatly and carefully the eleven sentences here given, observing the use of capitals and punctuation marks. Number each sentence as you write it and be sure that you spell each word correctly.

Copy the definition of language; also the definition of the sentence. Write a list of the names of things which you see in the picture. Number each word as you write it.

QUESTIONS

1. For what purpose are words used? 2. What is speech? 3. What is language? 4. What are the names of the seasons? 5. Do the names of the seasons begin with capitals or small letters? 6. What is a sentence? 7. Which do you like better, summer or winter? Why? 8. With what kind of letter does each sentence begin? 9. How many stars are there on the flag? 10. Do the stars represent the number of States in the Union? 11. How many stripes are there on the flag? 12. How many colors has the flag? 13. Why is it called the National Flag?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write three sentences each about the flag, the school buildings, the bell, the grass, the trees, the flowers, the birds.

Write three sentences each about a book, a pencil, a table, a desk, a clock, a window, a map.

EXAMPLE

1. The flag has forty-five stars (1903) on a blue background. 2. The flag has thirteen stripes, seven red and six white. 3. The flag is now waving in the breeze.

Write about what studies you have in your school and which you like best.

REVIEW EXERCISE

Tell what you can, in a connected manner, about the lesson you have learned.

Suggestions.—Tell what words express,—what speech is,—what language is,—what a sentence is;—tell the names of the seasons;—talk about the grass,—the trees,—the flowers,—the birds;—tell about the flag.

WRITTEN REVIEW EXERCISE

With pen, ink, and paper, write what you have learned about your lesson in the same manner that you talked about it.

In writing remember that,—

1. The first word of every distinct sentence should begin with a Capital letter.

2. All names of persons should begin with capitals.

3. The names of the seasons do not begin with capitals.

4. A period should be placed at the end of each statement which you make.

LESSON IV

THE PARAGRAPH

A Composition on Lesson III, Illustrating the Use of the Paragraph. The picture in Lesson III represents the grounds and buildings of a public school. The school buildings look as if they were well arranged and convenient.

The trees, the flowers, the grasses, and the walks, make the grounds look neat and attractive. Here, too, the pupils may study botany, and learn how to tell the names of the different kinds of trees, plants, flowers, and grasses found there.

The flag now waving in the breeze may be seen wherever you see a school in session. It is well calculated to inspire patriotism in the hearts of the pupils, and cause them to love their own country the best.

In this school the pupils have an opportunity to acquire a good education. They are expected to take proper care of their books and desks, and also to be respectful and polite to one another. In this way they acquire not only a knowledge of the studies they pursue, but also good social culture.

This lesson has been very interesting, but I think each pupil has been obliged to think, as well as study, to learn it. We all

think that learning to talk and to write about each lesson learned is very helpful to us.

Our teacher thinks that our language work is one of the most valuable lessons that we have in our school. She says that the review talk is a test of how much we know about the lesson.

COMPOSITION means something composed of several parts. There are several subjects talked about in this lesson. These put together form a COMPOSITION.

In the exercise just given there are several parts which united form a composition. Each of these parts is called a PARAGRAPH.

The first word in the first line in each paragraph is indented or set in farther from the margin of the paper than the line following it.

A paragraph is one or more sentences which form a distinct part of a discourse, or writing.

EXERCISE-IN PARAGRAPHING

Write in separate paragraphs all the definitions in Lesson IV; also the directions for the use of capitals. Remember to indent the first word in each paragraph as was done in the composition. Copy the composition and be sure you have every punctuation point and capital letter in its proper place.

In newspapers, sometimes, a single sentence written about some person or thing is called a paragraph; as,

—Mr. Ira Winters is sick with the rheumatism.

—Miss Alice Rogers, Miss Minnie Weber, and Miss Sarah Douglass went to the city last Friday.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write a paragraph about the weather.

Write six paragraphs about school matters.

Write six paragraphs about different things which you saw on your way to school.

Write six paragraphs about different things which you saw in a store.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a paragraph? 2. Of what is a composition, or writing, composed? 3. How should the first word in each paragraph be written? 4. What does *Mr.* denote, and what is it called?

REVIEW

Give a general talk about the lesson.

LESSON V

THE DECLARATIVE SENTENCE

If you write "James can read" you make a statement which affirms, states, or tells something, and you make an AFFIRMATION; but if you write "James cannot read" you make a statement which denies what has been said, or makes a denial, and such a statement is called a NEGATION.

A statement is that which is told or stated.

An affirmation is a statement which affirms or tells something.

A negation is a statement which makes a denial.

A declarative sentence is a sentence which expresses an affirmation or negation.

A period should be placed at the end of every declarative sentence.

EXAMPLES

1. Washington is called the father of his country. 2. Henry is not so old as James. 3. The boy did not know his lesson. 4. The Mississippi is the longest river in the world.

Make a list of the following sentences which express an affirmation; also a list of those which express a negation.

Number each sentence as you write it, observing carefully the capitals and punctuation.

1. The mind is that which knows, feels, and thinks. 2. New York is called the Empire State. 3. Iron is a useful metal. 4. The boy was not kind to his sister. 5. Gold is called a precious metal. 6. Benedict Arnold was a traitor to his country. 7. James lives near Central Park. 8. The sky is blue. 9. Charles Sumner was a citizen of Massachusetts. 10. Trees have roots, trunks, branches, and leaves. 11. I shall be ten years old next Thursday. 12. Cigarettes are not good for boys. 13. Reading makes a full man, writing makes a correct man, and talking makes a ready man.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write affirmative sentences each of which will contain one of the following words:

Ink-well, desk, water-pail, map, globe, broom, pencil, book, lesson, door, floor, window, book-case.

Write sentences, each of which will express a negation, using one of the following words in each sentence:

Noon, night, stars, lesson, Henry, help, complain, compare, have, understand, weather, write, think.

Write answers to the following questions:

1. How long does it take you to go from your home to your school? 2. Which of the winter sports do you like best? 3. Can you study and think about play at the same time? Why not? 4. What is a declarative sentence? 5. What is a statement? 6. What is an affirmation? 7. What is a negation?

GIVE A REVIEW TALK ON THE LESSON

Suggestions.—Talk about the sentence,—an affirmation,—a negation,—a statement;—the meaning of words, with their uses in sentences.

Take your book, or paper, and give reasons for the use of capitals in the sentences which you have copied.

LESSON VI

PROPER NAMES

1. The winter months are December, January, and February.

2. The first day of the week is called Sunday.

3. Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York City, Boston, New Orleans, San Francisco, and Chicago are names of cities.

4. Fourth of July, Thanksgiving, Christmas, and New Year's are holidays.

5. James has a dog named Nero.

6. Lillie has a parrot, and its name is Polly.

7. Henry has a yoke of steers; one he named Buck and the other Dandy.

8. Fannie has a doll, and she calls it Bessie.

9. Canary birds are found in the Canary Islands.

10. Long Island is a part of the State of New York.

11. The first Monday in September is called Labor Day.

12. Mercury and Venus are the names of two planets.

13. There are seven stars near the Polar Star, which, from the figure they form, are called the Dipper.

Any word used as a particular name is a proper name and should begin with a capital.

The names of the days of the week should begin with capitals.

The names of the months of the year should begin with capitals.

The proper names of places should begin with capitals.

All names of persons should begin with capitals; and sometimes of things to whom a proper name is given; as, Hessie calls her doll "Bright Eyes."

The names of the seasons do not begin with capitals.

Proper names of every description should begin with capitals.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Copy the thirteen sentences illustrating the use of proper names, and be prepared to give the reason for the use of each capital letter at the recitation hour.

2. Write the names of the days of the week.
3. Write the names of the months of the year.
4. Write the names of the holidays for your State.
5. Write the names of five cities in your State.
6. Write the names of five rivers in your State.
7. Write the names of five mountains in the United States.
8. Write the names of five islands near the Atlantic coast.

Write the different names under their respective heads, and number each word in the group. Thus, under the head of Days of the Week, write the names of the days of the week.

REVIEW EXERCISES

Tell all about particular names and common names, and give rule for the use of capitals. Talk about the holidays and tell why such days were made holidays. Tell which months are not abbreviated in writing.

LESSON VII

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE

1. In the picture what is the girl doing? 2. What is the boy doing? 3. What is the dog doing? 4. Is it fun for the boy? 5. Does the girl pity the cat? 6. Does the cat feel safe? 7. Can a dog climb a tree? Why not? 8. Can a cat climb a tree?

When a person writes such sentences, he interrogates or asks questions, and they are called interrogative sentences. The character (?) placed at the end of the sentence is called an interrogation point. It denotes that a question is asked.

To interrogate means to ask.

An interrogative sentence is a sentence which is used to ask a question.



An interrogation point should be placed at the end of every interrogative sentence.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write answers to questions asked about the picture. 2. Write about what you can see in the picture, and what you think happened to the cat. 3. Write the definition of an interrogative sentence. 4. Give the meaning of interro-

gate. 5. Write five questions about a cat. 6. Write five questions about a dog. 7. Write five questions about a tree.

REVIEW TALK ON THE LESSON

1. Describe the picture by telling what you see in it. 2. Tell the difference between a declarative and an interrogative sentence. 3. Tell how each is punctuated. 4. Tell why a cat can climb a tree, and why a dog cannot.

LESSON VIII

THE EARTH

The earth on which we live is round like a globe or ball. There is a point on the earth's surface which is called the North Pole and another which is called the South Pole. An imaginary line drawn through the earth from one pole to the other is called the earth's axis. The north pole points toward the North Star in the sky.

When the sky is clear at night, you can see the north star. Near the north star is a cluster of stars in the shape of a dipper. Two stars in the bowl of the dipper, opposite the handle, form a line with the north star, so that you can always readily find this star by first finding the Dipper.

In the evening, if you stand and look at the north star with your hands extended from your sides, your right hand will point toward the east, your left toward the west, and the south will be behind you. These four directions—North, South, East, and West—are called the four cardinal points of the compass. Then halfway between north and east will be northeast. The earth rotates (turns) on its axis from west to east once in twenty-four hours, and it revolves around the sun once a year of three hundred, sixty-five, and one-fourth days.

The earth is surrounded by the atmosphere (the air) about fifty miles in depth. Beyond the atmosphere the space is supposed to be filled with some ethereal substance lighter than air. It has a



blue color, and, when you look up, you see this blue color, which is called the sky or heavens above. Up is always toward the sky above you, and down, toward the center of the earth. The earth is also called the world, sphere, or globe.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the shape of the earth? 2. What are the names of the poles of the earth? 3. In what direction does the north pole point? 4. Where is the Dipper, and of how many stars is it composed? 5. What is the earth's axis? 6. How can you find the north star by the Dipper? 7. What are the four cardinal points of the compass? 8. In what direction does the earth rotate? 9. In what direction is northeast? 10. In what direction is northwest? 11. How often

does the earth rotate or turn on its axis? 12. How long does it take the earth to revolve around the sun? 13. By what is the earth surrounded? 14. In what direction is up? 15. In what direction is down? 16. By what names is the earth called? 17. In what direction is the north star from the earth?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Copy the description of the earth. 2. Write an answer to each of the seventeen questions. 3. Write questions such as you desire to ask about the lesson, and number them.

REVIEW EXERCISE

Tell in a connected manner, what you have learned about the lesson, and be sure that you have learned all about it. Write, in a connected manner, about this lesson just as you have talked about it.

LESSON IX

A PICTURE LESSON

TWINKLE, TWINKLE, LITTLE STAR

"Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
Up above the world so high,
Like a diamond in the sky.

"When the glorious sun is set,
When the grass with dew is wet,
Then you show your little light;
Twinkle, twinkle, all the night.

"In the dark blue sky you keep,
And often through my curtains peep;
For you never shut your eye
Till the sun is in the sky.



"As your bright and tiny spark
Lights the traveler in the dark,
Though I know not what you are,
Twinkle, twinkle, little star."

NOTE.—The double inverted commas at the beginning of each stanza, and the apostrophes at the ending of this selection, denote that it was taken from some other writer; that is, quoted; and the points are called quotation marks.

Write answers to the following questions:

1. What different objects do you see in the picture? 2. Were you ever in a boat on a lake? 3. What can you see beyond the lake? 4. What can the boy on the piazza see overhead? 5. How can you find the north star? 6. In what direction is it from the center of the earth? 7. How does a star resemble a diamond? 8. What is the sky? 9. What is dew? 10. What becomes of the dew on the grass

after the sun has risen? 11. When are capitals used in writing this poem? 12. How does poetry differ from prose in the use of capitals?

NOTE.—Each line in this poem is called a verse; and the four lines are called a stanza. Sometimes a stanza contains more than four lines.

Commit this poem to memory, so that you can recite it; or, from memory, write it.

REVIEW

1. Describe the picture by telling what you see in it. 2. Tell why you cannot see the stars in the daytime. 3. Tell the difference between a verse and a stanza. *Ans.*—A verse is usually one line in poetry. A stanza is two, four, six, or more lines, which form a distinct part, or portion of a poem.

The first word in every line of poetry should begin with a capital.

LESSON X

THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE

1. Henry, bring your slate to me. 2. Maud, look at the clock and tell me what time it is. 3. Go to the ant, thou sluggard, and learn to be wise. 4. Charles, do be careful while you are in the boat on the pond. 5. Lillie, try to keep your feet dry. 6. Henry, learn all you can by observation as well as by study. 7. Always do what you think is right. 8. Remember that careful, persistent study insures good lessons.

In 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, and 8, commands are given; and in 4 and 5 entreaties are made. Such sentences are called IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

TO ENTREAT means TO ASK, TO BESEECH, TO REQUEST.

TO COMMAND means TO DIRECT, TO ORDER.

An imperative sentence is a sentence which expresses a command or an entreaty; as, "Henry, copy these sen-

tences neatly on paper." "Henry, do write these sentences so that you will feel proud of your effort."

A period should be placed at the end of every imperative sentence.

The name of a person addressed should be set off by a comma; as, "James, be sure that you are right, then go ahead."

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Copy the eight sentences given at the beginning of this lesson; then change each to an interrogative sentence.

Write imperative sentences using, in each, one of the following words: Write, read, compare, prepare, talk, bring, call, send, go, return.

Copy the following sentences and classify them as declarative, interrogative, and imperative:

1. Children, obey your teachers. 2. A beehouse is a house for bees to live in. 3. Take care, James, the bees might sting you. 4. Knowledge is power. 5. Our country's flag is freedom's emblem. 6. "Smooth runs the water where the brook is deep." 7. Is your lesson learned? 8. Which is the largest city in the United States? 9. The scenes of my childhood are dear to my heart. 10. Those little birds in the trees sing sweetly. 11. Measure your life by acts of goodness, not by years. 12. Socrates said, "I believe that the soul is immortal." 13. Socrates said that he believed in the immortality of the soul. 14. James said, "I have lost my knife." 15. "I have found it," cried Henry. 16. Little Mabel asked, "Papa, who makes it snow?"

NOTE.—In 12, the words enclosed in quotation marks are the exact words of Socrates; but in 13, some one has stated in his own language what Socrates said.

The exact language of another person, enclosed in quotation marks, is called a quotation.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the meaning of entreat? of command? 2. What is an imperative sentence? 3. What punctuation mark should be placed after an imperative sentence? 4.

What is the difference between *to interrogate* and *to command?* 5. In 12, what Socrates said is enclosed in quotation marks, and these words quoted form a sentence. This sentence, used as if it were a word, is the object of *said.* The whole sentence then is declarative.

REVIEW TALK

Suggestions.—Talk about an imperative sentence,—to entreat,—to command;—the use of a comma after the name of a person addressed,—the punctuation of an imperative sentence. Tell what a quotation is,—how it is enclosed,—about the marks, and about the difference between the interrogative and the imperative sentence.

LESSON XI

THE EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE

1. O, see that horse running away! 2. Hark! some one is coming up the steps. 3. O, Jennie! see Fido run after the cat! 4. Quick! man the boat; away they sprang! 5. Get off the track! the train is coming! 6. All ready! one, two, three—go! 7. How the wind does whistle through the trees! 8. "I know not what course others may take; but, as for me, give me liberty or give me death!"—Patrick Henry. 9. "Oh the great deep of suffering in every human breast!" 10. O look! see how hard it rains!

This mark or sign (!) is called an EXCLAMATION POINT. It denotes some sudden expression of feeling; as, in sentences 1–10.

An exclamatory sentence is a sentence which expresses an exclamation; as, "O, see that balloon up in the air!"

An exclamatory sentence should be followed by an exclamation point.

Any word used as an exclamation should be followed by an exclamation point; as, "Stop!" "Look!" "Listen!"

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Copy the ten sentences at the beginning of this lesson. 2. Write the definition of an exclamatory sentence. 3. Tell what an exclamation point denotes. 4. Select and write five exclamatory sentences from your Reader. 5. Tell why the exclamation point is used in each of the ten sentences.

REVIEW

Give a connected talk about the lesson.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write what you can about this lesson just as you have talked about it.

LESSON XII

REVIEW EXERCISES

From the list below write all the declarative, the imperative, the interrogative, and the exclamatory sentences, placing each under its respective head.

1. In what State is Philadelphia situated? 2. Why is one dollar equal in value to ten dimes? 3. Choose good company or have none at all. 4. O, how I wish I were a boy again! 5. Oh! how the wind does blow! 6. Charles, write your address on your slate. 7. Does your brother go to school this winter? 8. Marion, you may answer this question. 9. The names of the months should begin with capitals. 10. Write your exercise neatly and plainly. 11. Why do you go now? 12. The names of the days of the week begin with capitals. 13. Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth. 14. Evil communications corrupt good manners. 15. Is this lesson too easy? 16. I am glad that Christmas is coming. 17. What a fine dog Nero is! 18. How bright the stars shine to-night!

LESSON XIII

GENERAL QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. To what is the word *thought* applied? 2. What do you use to express your thoughts? 3. What is language? 4. What is a sentence? 5. What is the difference between a thought and a sentence? 6. What kind of sentences have we talked about up to this time? 7. What is a declarative sentence? An imperative sentence? An interrogative sentence? An exclamatory sentence? 8. In writing a sentence what word should always commence with a capital? 9. What are the names of the seasons? 10. Which season do you like best? Why? 11. Should the days of the week begin with capitals? 12. What punctuation mark is used at the end of each kind of sentence?

NOTE.—The pupil should give complete answers to all questions, and he should feel that the habit of giving clear, full, explicit answers gives him greater power in the expression of thought.

WRITTEN REVIEW

1. Define language. 2. Define a sentence. 3. Name the four kinds of sentences. 4. Write seven sentences each of which will contain the name of one of the days of the week. 5. Write twelve sentences each of which will contain the name of a month. 6. Write the names of the sentences which require a period at the end. 7. Write the names of the holidays in your State.

GENERAL CLASS EXERCISE

Let the pupils copy at their seats, then, in the class, give reasons for the use of capitals in each of the following sentences, each in turn taking one.

1. The boys and girls expect Santa Claus at Christmas. 2. New Year's, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Election Day, Thanksgiving, February 22, are holidays.

3. Thirty days hath September,
 April, June, and November;
 All the rest have thirty-one,
 Excepting February alone,
 Which has twenty-eight three times,
 And leap-year gives it twenty-nine.

4. James went home on Friday, and returned on Monday. 5. December, January, and February are winter months. 6. Apple-trees bloom in May and have ripe fruit in September. 7. George Washington was the first President of the United States. 8. New Orleans is situated on the Mississippi River in the State of Louisiana, near the Gulf of Mexico. 9. Sleepy Hollow, so named by Washington Irving, is near the Hudson River. 10. George Washington was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, February 22, 1732. 11. Washington, the capital of the United States, is situated on the Potomac River, in the District of Columbia. 12. Benjamin Franklin was the author of Poor Richard's Almanac. 13. City Hall, New York City, stands in a park which is located between Chambers Street on the north, Park Row on the east, Broadway on the west, and Mail Street (a narrow lane which separates it from the Post-office building) on the south.

LESSON XIV

LETTERS AND THEIR USES

1. Āle, senāte, câre, ăm, ärm, åsk, final, ạll.
2. Tīme, thīs, thĭn, cut, cĕnt, cōal.
3. Out, you, toy, mĭss, rōll, built.

 ¯ Macron, ˘ breve, ^ circumflex.

In *āle, senāte, câre, ăm, ärm, åsk, final, ạll* different sounds of the letter *a* are used. In *time, t* represents its only primary sound; but in *this, th* taken together, represent one sound; and in *thin,* another sound. *C* in *cut* and *cent* represents two different sounds. *O* in *coal* repre-

sents one sound; but in *out*, it is combined with *u* and forms a compound sound. In *you* the *o* is not sounded. *Oy* in *toy* is also a compound sound. In *miss*, *ss* has the same sound as *s*, only more prolonged. R-o-l is pronounced rŏl; but r-o-ll is pronounced rōll—a different sound.

You see, then, that a letter may represent one or more than one sound, may be compounded with one or more sounds, or may be silent.

The marks over and under the letters, used to represent their different sounds, are called diacritical marks.

A simple sound is a primary sound, first sound; as ā in ale, t in time.

Any combination of two or more sounds is called a compound sound; as, oy in boy; uoi in quoit; or there may be two letters to represent one sound; as, ou.

A letter is a character commonly representing some elementary sound of a word.

An elementary sound of a word is a simple primary sound of the human voice used in speaking.

A diacritical mark is a mark used with a letter to indicate its proper sound; as, ā in āle; ă in ăt.

The alphabet contains twenty-six letters arranged in a certain order, and each letter has a particular form and name; also one sound or more than one.

The letters used in English have severally two forms, CAPITALS and SMALL LETTERS.

The following letters are called Roman letters, because they are like those used by the Romans in ancient times.

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, etc.

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, etc.

There are Italic letters, so called because they are the same in form as those used by the Italians.

Examples: *These are the Italian forms of letters.*

The forms in writing are called *script*.

Examples: *Christmas comes but once a year.*

WRITTEN WORK

1. Write the words in the first three lines of the exercise, observing carefully the use of diacritical marks and the punctuation points. 2. Write sentences, using, in each, one of the words copied. Example of such use: This is an *age* of wonderful inventions. 3. Copy carefully the definitions given and commit them to memory. 4. Write any questions that you desire to ask about the lesson in order that they may be explained in the class.

QUESTIONS

1. Of what is the alphabet composed? 2. What is a letter? 3. What do letters represent? 4. What forms have letters? 5. What are Roman letters? 6. What are Italic letters? 7. What is script? 8. What is an elementary sound of a letter? 9. What is a compound sound? 10. What is a diacritical mark?

Give a Review Talk on the Lesson. Suggestions.— Talk about the letters, their forms and sounds; the use of diacritical marks; the definitions; the Roman letters; the Italian letters; the script. Give illustrations of simple sounds of letters; of compound sounds; of silent letters.

Write about the lesson as you would talk about it.

LESSON XV

NAMES AND SOUNDS OF LETTERS AND HOW FORMED

The letters a, e, i, o, u have names the same as the first sound of each letter respectively. Each of these letters forms a complete sound when uttered alone, and is called a vowel.

A vowel is a letter which forms a perfect sound when uttered alone; as, a, e, o.

The names of the other letters are variously formed. Eight of them are formed by using the sound of the letter before *e*. Their names are *be, ce, de, ge, pe, te, ve,* and *ze.*

Six are formed by using the sound of the letter after *e*. These are *ef, el, em, en, es,* and *ex.*

The names of the other letters are variously formed; namely, *ja, ka, qu, ar, aitch, double-u,* and *wi.*

Such letters are called CONSONANTS because they cannot be clearly uttered until joined to a VOWEL.

Con means *with, sonant,* sounding; and *consonant* means sounding with another sound.

A consonant is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered until joined to a vowel.

W and y are consonants when they precede a vowel heard in the same syllable; as, wine, twine, ye, yet, youth; in all other cases these letters are vowels; as, newly, dewy, eyebrow, try, myrrh.

Some vowel sounds are compound; namely, that of *i* formed of *ä* and *ĭ;* and that of *u* formed from *ĭ* and *o͝o.*

Enunciate the simple sounds together rapidly and you will give the compound sound.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write a list of the vowels. 2. Write a list of the consonants. 3. Write a list of the letters which are placed separately before *e* to form the name of the letter. 4. Write a list of the letters which are placed separately after *e* to form the name of the letter. 5. Write a list of words which are the names of the other letters. 6. Write the definition of vowel. 7. Write the definition of consonant.

QUESTIONS

1. What letters are vowels? 2. What letters are sometimes vowels and sometimes consonants? 3. What is a con-

sonant? 4. What does consonant mean? 5. What is a vowel? 6. Mention a vowel which has a compound sound and tell what sounds compose it. 7. What is the difference between a vowel and a consonant? 8. What do letters represent? 9. Tell, in a connected manner, what you know about this lesson.

WRITTEN REVIEW

Write, in a connected manner, what you know about this lesson.

LESSON XVI

SYLLABLES AND WORDS

1. Pail, paper, able, ability. 2. Base, though, bound, boat, voice, plough, plain. 3. Moon, book, diphthong, dipthongal. 4. Anxious, review, cautious, viewless.

In 1, letters joined together as *p-a-i-l, pail,* form a word of one syllable. *Paper* is a word of two syllables. *Ability* is a word of four syllables.

A syllable is one or more letters pronounced in one sound and is either a word or a part of a word.

A word is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea or some manner of thought.

A word has as many distinct sounds as there are syllables.

An idea is a mental picture of something perceived in the mind.

EXAMPLE: Look steadily at a tree for a moment, then turn your eyes away and try to think how the tree looks. The tree that you see in your mind is a mental picture, and the word *tree* represents the idea of the picture.

A SYLLABLE always contains one vowel so as to form a perfect sound; and it may contain two or three vowels, or one or more consonants with a vowel; as *man, a, moon, buoy, learn.*

When a letter that is not sounded is used in a syllable, it is said to be MUTE or SILENT; as the letter *e* in *base*, and the letters *u*, *g*, *h* in *though*.

In *boat* *a* is silent; in *plough*, *gh* are silent; in *bound*, *ou* form one sound, and the two vowels so united form what is called a DIPHTHONG; in *plain*, the *i* is silent; in *voice*, *oi* are combined in one sound; in *moon* the diphthongal sound (o͝o) is long; in *look* the diphthongal sound (o͝o) is short.

In *diphthong*, *di*, used for *dis*, means two, and *phthong*, (Greek) means a sound of the voice.

In *anxious* the three vowels *i*, *o*, *u* are combined in one syllable, and are called a TRIPHTHONG.

A triphthong is three vowels joined in one syllable; as, eau in beau; iew in view; iou in anxious.

When two vowels are joined in one syllable and both are sounded they form what is called a PROPER DIPHTHONG; as *oi* in *voice;* but if only one is sounded then the diphthong is improper; as, *oa* in *boat*, the *a* being silent.

A diphthong is two vowels joined in one syllable; as, ea in beat; ou in sound; oi in voice; ow in cow.

A proper diphthong is a diphthong in which both of the vowels are sounded; as, ou in out; ow in cow.

An improper diphthong is a diphthong in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, oa in loaf; ea in mean.

A proper triphthong is a triphthong in which all the vowels are sounded; as, uoy in buoy; uoi in quoit.

An improper triphthong is a triphthong in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded; as, eau in beauty; iou in anxious.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write sentences each of which shall contain one of the words at the beginning of this lesson. 2. Write the definition

of a syllable; of a word; of a diphthong; of a proper diphthong; of an improper diphthong; of a triphthong; of a proper triphthong; of an improper triphthong. 3. Write the following words one under another, and at the right of each write the diphthong or diphthongs which it contains with the word proper or improper after each as is required.

1. moon	7. builder	13. degree	19. receiver
2. chief	8. pointed	14. coward	20. joyous
3. goods	9. despair	15. conscience	21. jealous
4. reign	10. either	16. prairie	22. nation
5. spoon	11. ancient	17. journey	23. teaspoon
6. town	12. maintain	18. issue	24. school-boy

EXAMPLE: *Fountain—ou* (proper); *ai* (improper).
Fourteen—ou (improper); *ee* (improper).

In the same manner write after each of the following words the triphthong which it contains:

1. awe-struck	4. viewless	7. anxious	10. cautious
2. eyelet	5. beauteous	8. quaint	11. outrageous
3. buoyant	6. adieu	9. review	

QUESTIONS

1. What is a syllable? 2. What may a syllable contain? 3. What is a word? 4. What is an idea? 5. What are your thoughts? 6. What is a silent letter? 7. When two vowels are joined in one syllable what are they called? 8. Define diphthong; improper diphthong; proper diphthong; triphthong; improper triphthong; proper triphthong. 9. Give a general review of the lesson.

LESSON XVII

WORDS

A syllable is one or more letters pronounced in one sound and is either a word or a part of a word.

A word is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea or some manner of thought.

Mono means one; dis, two; tri, three; and poly, many.
A monosyllable is a word of one syllable.
A dissyllable is a word of two syllables.
A trisyllable is a word of three syllables.
A polysyllable is a word of four or more syllables.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write a word of one syllable containing a diphthong; a triphthong. 2. Write a list of five monosyllables; five dissyllables; five trisyllables; five polysyllables. 3. Write a sentence containing a trisyllable. 4. Write a sentence containing a polysyllable. 5. Copy the definitions in this lesson. 6. Give a talk on the lesson.

LESSON XVIII

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND WORDS

1. Watch, man, watchman; never, the, less, nevertheless. 2. Bird-cage, all-wise, school-boy, full-grown. 3. Moonbeam, horseman, bluebird, penknife, spoonful.

In 1, the two simple words *watch, man* joined together form the compound word *watchman*. *Nevertheless* is a compound word composed of three simple words—*never, the, less*.

In 2, *bird* and *cage* are two simple words, but when joined together with a hyphen (-) they form a compound word.

In 3, *moonbeam* is a *compound word* composed of *moon* and *beam* joined together without a hyphen.

We have, then, *simple words* and *compound words*. The parts of some compound words are joined together with a hyphen and the parts of some others without a hyphen.

When a compound word has but one syllable accented in pronunciation no hyphen is used; as, *watchword, statesman, teaspoon, jackknife.*

A compound word with both words equally accented requires a hyphen; as, red-hot, school-book, new-coined.

A simple word is a word not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, harm, great, connect.

A compound word is a word formed from two or more simple words; as, watchman, schoolmate, good-natured, well-being.

The hyphen is used to connect the parts of many words, especially such as have two accents. It is sometimes used to show the division of words into syllables; as *tel-e-scope, com-mu-ni-cate.* It is also placed at the end of a line to show that one or more syllables are carried over to the next line; as, *turbu-lent.*

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write compound words from the following simple words joining any two that may be properly united and using the hyphen when required.

Bird, pen, ship, cage, wreck, knife, mouse, moon, beam, trap, shine, sun, day, week, time, mint, pepper, church, box, man, arm, good, yard, watch, clock, maker, rail, school, road, master.

EXAMPLE

Bird-cage, penknife, mousetrap.

Write three sentences each about a horseman, a bluebird, a penknife, a moonbeam, a bird-cage, a gentleman.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a simple word? 2. What is a compound word? 3. How are many compound words formed? 4. When are compound words connected with a hyphen? 5. When are compound words written without a hyphen? 6. For what

different purposes is a hyphen used? 7. Give a general talk on the lesson.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write what you know about this lesson as you talked about it.

LESSON XIX

PRIMITIVE AND DERIVATIVE WORDS

1. Mis, rule, misrule; im, print, imprint. 2. Great, ly, greatly; connect, ed, connected. 3. Connect, connection, connector, connectedly. 4. Appear, reappears, disappear, disappeared.

In 1, the prefix *mis,* and the primitive word *rule,* when combined, form the derivative word *misrule.*

A prefix is one or more syllables united with the beginning of a word to form a derivative word; as, pre in prefix; con in conjure; pre in prepaid; mis in misrule.

A primitive word is a word not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, rule, good, smoke, rain, charm.

A derivative word is a word derived from some simpler word in the language; as, misrule from rule; goodness from good; smoking from smoke; rained from rain; charming from charm; prepaid from paid.

In 2, the primitive word *great,* united with the suffix *ly,* forms the derivative word *greatly;* and *connect,* with the suffix *ed,* forms *connected.*

A suffix is one or more syllables combined with the end of a word to form a derivative word; as, great with ly forms greatly; faith with ful, faithful; read with er, reader.

In 3, *connect* with *ion* forms *connection;* and *connect* with two suffixes, *ed* and *ly* forms the word *connectedly.*

In 4, from *appear*, with prefixes and suffixes, are formed the words *reappear, disappear, disappeared.*

A primitive word may have a prefix or a suffix, or both prefix and suffix, or more than one of each to form a derivative word.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write as many derivative words as you can from the following primitive words:

Command, appear, construct, elect, cover, press, inhabit, destroy, proper, prepare, confound.

In forming these derivative words make selections from the following prefixes and suffixes:

Er, ed, ment, ing, dis, re, or, tion, ive, um, op, com, de, able, ance, cy, ant, ate, less, ly.

EXAMPLE: Conceal, concealable, concealed, concealedly, concealedness, concealer, concealment.

Write the definition of *word, derivative word, primitive word, prefix, suffix.*

QUESTIONS

1. How are derivative words formed? 2. What is a primitive word? 3. What is a suffix? 4. What is a prefix? 5. What is a derivative word? 6. Tell how a prefix joined to a word changes its meaning.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write what you know about primitive and derivative words

LESSON XX

DIFFERENT LANGUAGES

	ENGLISH.	OLD ENGLISH.	GERMAN.	LATIN.
1.	Father.	Fader.	Vater.	Pater.
2.	Mother.	Moder.	Mutter.	Mater.
3.	Sun.	Sunne.	Sonne.	Sol.
4.	Moon.	Mone.	Mond.	Mensis, Luna.

There are more than a thousand languages and dialects in the world.

A person or thing is represented in different languages by different words which have the same meaning.

Thus in 1, *father* is English; *fader* is Old English; *Vater*, German; and *pater*, Latin.

In 2, 3, 4, different words express respectively mother, sun, and moon in the languages mentioned.

We often see people in this country who speak the language of the country from which they came. Many people who speak English may be found in other parts of the world.

You should first learn to speak and write your own language correctly; then you can more easily learn another language.

To learn to speak and write your own language correctly, you must learn the proper form and meaning of each word and its use in its relations with other words in sentences. This is called the study of grammar and the art of using words correctly in accordance with the usage of the best speakers and writers.

English grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.

We may separate a sentence into words, and a word into letters.

A letter is called the simplest element of written language.

A sound of a letter is the simplest element of spoken language.

An element is one of the simple parts of which anything is composed.

QUESTIONS

1. How many languages are there in the world? How is the name of a person or thing written in different languages? 3. How is Father written in Old English, German, and Latin? 4. Did you ever hear a person speak in German? 5. Could you understand him? 6. How can you learn to speak and write your own language correctly? 7. What is English Grammar? 8. What is the simplest element of a written word? 9. What is the simplest element of a spoken word? 10. What is an element of a word? 11. Give a general talk about the lesson.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write out what you have learned about the languages of the world and give a general description of the contents of the lesson.

ANALYSIS

LESSON XXI

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

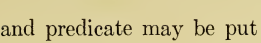
1. Charles studies. 2. Birds fly. 3. Trees grow. 4. Dogs bark. 5. Fishes swims. 6. Boys play. 7. Grass grows. 8. Flowers bloom.

In the sentence, *Charles studies*, Charles is the name of a person about which something is said; and *studies* is a word which denotes what is said about Charles.

Charles is called the SUBJECT, and STUDIES is called the PREDICATE.

The SUBJECT and PREDICATE united always form a SENTENCE.

The subject and predicate may be put into a diagram as follows:



This character always indicates the simple subject and predicate.

ORAL ANALYSIS.—*Charles* is the subject because it is the name of a person about which something is said. *Studies* is the predicate because it denotes what is said about the subject.

The subject of a sentence is that about which something is said.

The predicate of a sentence is that which denotes what is said about the subject.

A diagram is a figure illustrating, in grammar, the use of each word in a sentence.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Put each of the eight sentences given, into diagram, and give an oral analysis of each. Supply a subject in the place of each of the following blanks, put each sentence into diagram, and give an oral analysis of each.

1. ——— play.
2. ——— walk.
3. ——— sail.
4. ——— sing.
5. ——— shout.
6. ——— leap.
7. ——— slide.
8. ——— scratch.
9. ——— think.
10. ——— swing.

Always give a reason for the use of each word and repeat the definition of the term used.

Supply predicates in the place of the blanks, put each sentence into diagram, and give an oral analysis of each. Repeat definitions of terms used.

1. Children ———.
2. Dandelions ———.
3. Turkeys ———.
4. Ice ———.
5. Flowers ———.
6. Watches ———.
7. Frogs ———.
8. Robins ———.
9. Horses ———.
10. Seeds ———.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a sentence? 2. What is the subject of a sentence? 3. What is the predicate of a sentence? 4. What do the subject and predicate always form? 5. What is a diagram of a sentence? 6. What is a statement? 7. Give a connected talk about the lesson. 8. Write a composition about the lesson.

LESSON XXII

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE (Continued)

The subject and predicate may each contain more than one word.

1. Boys study. 2. The stars are shining. 3. William Henry Arnold is reading. 4. The boy is talking. 5. The little boy has been reading. 6. The boy might have been hurt. 7. The horse runs swiftly. 8. The black horse is running swiftly. 9. The cold bleak November wind is blowing.

In 1, give an oral analysis and definitions of the terms used.

In 2, *The* relates to the subject *stars* and *are shining* is the predicate.

In 3, *William Henry Arnold,* the full name of the boy, is the subject.

In 7, *swiftly* is used to tell how the horse runs, and is an adjunct of *runs.*

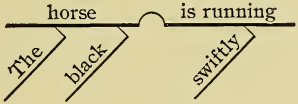
A word which relates to another word in a sentence, to limit or modify its meaning, is called an adjunct.

In 8, *swiftly* relates to the predicate *is running;* that is,

the two words *is running* perform the same office as one word.

Put each of the nine sentences into diagram, and give an oral analysis of each sentence.

EXAMPLE:



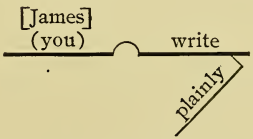
This character denotes an adjunct word.

In analyzing sentences the learner must consider the meaning and use of each word and classify it according to its use.

Diagram the following sentences, and give an oral analysis of each.

1. The canary bird sings sweetly. 2. The snow is falling rapidly. 3. The diligent pupil improves rapidly. 4. A good boy will study diligently. 5. The old dog is barking. 6. The white roses are now blooming. 7. The full moon is just rising. 8. The chanticleer is crowing lustily. 9. A free people should be educated. 10. The school bell is now ringing. 11. Is Charles studying now? 12. Has Willie come back? 13. James, write plainly.

EXAMPLE:



In 11, transpose the words before analyzing.

In 13, *you* is *understood* as the subject. James is independent by direct address.

The subject and predicate, united in different ways, may make an assertion, ask a question, express a command, or

an exclamation; as, The boy studies. Did the boy study? John, run. O, see that horse running away!

Analysis is the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

PARTS OF SPEECH

LESSON XXIII

THE NOUN

1. James, Henry, William Brown, Lottie A. Canfield.
2. Albany, New York, Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia.
3. Pen, book, pencil, slate, air, sound, truth, flowers, fragrance, thunder, apple, iron, fur.

In 1, are given names of persons; in 2, names of places; in 3, names of things.

A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, George, Boston, apple, truth.

Whatever you can perceive by the senses; that is, whatever you can *see, hear, taste, touch,* or *smell,* must have a name so as to distinguish one person or thing from another You cannot write or talk clearly about persons, places, or things without giving them names.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write the names of five things which you can perceive by the sense of *seeing.* 2. Write the names of five things which you can perceive by the sense of *hearing.* 3. Write the names of five things which you can perceive by the sense of *taste.* 4. Write the names of five things which you can perceive by the sense of *touch.* 5. Write the names of five things which you can perceive by the sense of *smell.* 6. Write the names of five places in your State. 7. Write the names

of five persons whom you know. 8. Write the names of eight parts of the exterior of the head. 9. Write the names of five parts of a chair.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the names of the five senses? 2. In writing the names of persons, places, and things, which words should always begin with capitals? 3. What does exterior mean? 4. Why is it necessary to give names to everything around us?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write sentences each of which will contain one of the following words used as a noun:

Boy, act, squirrel, Henry, watermelon, apple, pear, dog, truth, paper, pencil, desk, exterior, signature.

Give a review talk about the lesson.

Write a composition telling what you know about the noun.

LESSON XXIV

THE VERB

1. Birds fly. 2. Henry is taught. 3. He is. 4. She sleeps.

In 1, the use of the word *fly* is to denote what birds do; that is, what action they perform. In 2, *is taught* denotes what is done to Henry. In 3, *is* denotes being or existence without action of any kind. In 4, *sleeps* denotes being in a certain state or condition.

The word in a sentence which denotes that the subject is spoken of as *being, acting,* or *being acted upon,* is called a verb.

A verb is a word which signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon; as, "He is," "He writes," "He was hurt";

"The boy is here," "The boy writes," "The boy was caught," "He sleeps."

Sometimes the action expressed by the verb passes over to some person or thing called an OBJECT; as, 1, John saws wood; 2, Mary picked a flower; 3, Henry felled a tree.

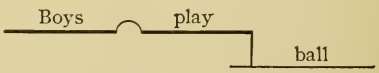
The *object* answers to the question, What? after the verb. Thus, John saws what? *Answer*—Wood. Mary picked what? *Answer*—A flower.

The object in a sentence is that which receives the action of the verb as performed by the subject.

Analyze the following sentences, and parse the nouns and the verbs.

1. Boys play ball.
2. Cats catch mice.
3. The mouse was caught.
4. The boy is playing.
5. Squirrels climb trees.
6. Birds sing songs.
7. The lesson was learned.
8. She sleeps.
9. Mice eat cheese.
10. Foxes catch chickens.
11. Columbus discovered America.
12. The dog barks.

EXAMPLE:



This character always denotes an object of a verb or a participle.

This is a declarative sentence, because it expresses an affirmation.

The *subject* is *boys*, because it denotes what is spoken of in the sentence.

Play is the predicate verb, because it denotes what is said of the subject.

Ball is the *object*, because it receives the action of the verb and helps to denote what the boys are doing.

Boys is a noun, because it is the name of a class of persons.

Play is a verb, because it denotes what is said about boys.

Ball is a noun, because it is the name of a thing.

The pupil should give a definition of each term used in analysis and parsing when he uses it. Thus, in analysis, he

should give the definition of declarative sentence, subject, predicate, and object; and in parsing, the definition of noun, verb, and object.

Copy the following expressions and supply suitable verbs in place of the blanks.

1. The man ——— from Boston. 2. The book ——— mine. 3. The boy ——— on the burning deck. 4. The birds ———. 5. The sun ———. 6. The visitors ——— through the gate. 7. The wind ——— very hard. 8. The apples ——— sour. 9. Iron ——— heavy. 10. Honesty ——— the best policy. 11. The artist ——— a picture. 12. The grocer ——— tea and coffee. 13. Grammar ——— a useful study.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write sentences each of which will contain one of the following verbs:

Is, am, was, were, has, had, caught, did, will go, may be caught, can read, has been reading, did consider, has been recommended, may write.

Select and write from the following sentences such verbs as denote *action, acted upon, being,* or *state of being.* Arrange each verb under its proper head.

1. The boy is on duty. 2. The horse can run very fast. 3. The cat is asleep on the rug in the kitchen. 4. Mary studies her grammar lesson at home. 5. The old oaken bucket hangs in the well. 6. Washington was called the Father of his Country. 7. The flowers bloom in the spring. 8. The tree stands on the hill. 9. Henry saw the elephant at the circus. 10. The boy's finger was crushed under a stone. 11. America was discovered by Columbus. 12. The squirrel was caught in a trap.

LESSON XXV

THE ARTICLE

1. A boy, a pencil, a cat, a union, a horse, a song.
2. An ox, an apple, an eye, an hour, an inkstand.
3. The boy, the boys, the snow, the cat, the man, the men.

In 1, observe that *a* is used to point out one thing of a kind, and that it is inserted only before words beginning with a consonant sound. In 2, that *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound, and that it refers only to one thing of a kind. In 3, that *the* is used before words beginning with either a consonant or a vowel sound, and may refer to one thing or more than one.

In 1, also, *union* commences with a consonant sound. In *hour* (2) *h* is silent.

The three words a, an, the, are called articles.

An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before a noun to limit its signification; as, "The air," "The boys," "An ox," "A hat."

Put into diagram and analyze each of the following sentences. Parse the article, the noun, and the verb.

1. The man killed a bear.
2. The dog caught a squirrel.
3. A rat ate the cheese.
4. An ox will eat hay.
5. The man picked an apple.
6. Anna Bookwalter has a fan.
7. The boy has written a composition.
8. Charles J. Abbott has killed a squirrel.
9. The Greeks loved the fine arts.
10. A diamond will cut glass.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Supply the proper article in the place of a dash in each of the following sentences:

1. ——— old crow sat on ——— top of ——— high tree.
2. ——— spider is ——— interesting little creature.
3. James has ——— apple, ——— pear, and ——— orange.
4. Shakespeare was ——— English poet.
5. ——— orange is better than ——— pear, ——— apple, or ——— quince.
6. ——— teacher and ——— pupils had ——— holiday.

QUESTIONS

1. Before words beginning with what sound is *a* used? 2. What is a consonant? 3. What is a vowel? 4. Why does the word *Greeks* commence with a capital? 5. What is an *article?* 6. Give a review talk on the *article.*

LESSON XXVI

THE PRONOUN

1. Henry said Henry would get Henry's book and go to school.
2. Henry said he would get his book and go to school.
3. I am glad that you are here.
4. The boys ate the boys' lunch under an apple tree.
5. The boys ate their lunch under an apple tree.

In 2, the words *he* and *his* are used instead of *Henry* and *Henry's* as in 1. This saves the repetition of words in a sentence.

In 3, *I* is used instead of the name of the speaker and *you* is used instead of the name of the person addressed.

In 5, *their* is used instead of boys' as in 4. These words are used instead of the nouns for which they stand, and are called *pronouns.*

Pro means for, and *noun,* a name.

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, "The boy has long lessons and he learns them well."

Copy the following sentences and draw a line under each pronoun:

1. Frank studies his grammar lesson at his home at night.
2. Henry and Frank took their skates and went on the pond.
3. The farmer fed his horse, and gave it some water to drink.
4. A great elm tree spread its branches over their homestead.
5. The shouts of the children came to us through our window.
6. I have broken my kite which you gave me.

Copy the following sentences and supply suitable pronouns in place of the blanks:

1. The boy sold ——— skates to ——— friend Willie.
2. Mary cut ——— finger with the knife ——— ——— gave to ———.
3. Henry saw some fine pictures, but ——— did not buy ——.
4. What is ——— that ——— see on the lake?
5. Can ——— tell ——— where Henry keeps ——— sled?
6. Harry took ——— skates with ——— when ——— went on the pond.
7. ——— will go now if ——— will please get ——— hats.
8. This is ——— sister's book ——— ——— bought at ——— book-store.
9. If ——— plagues the cat ——— will scratch ———.
10. ——— is good for ——— to be here.

Write sentences each of which shall contain one or more of the following pronouns:

I, you, we, he, she, it, they, me, him, her, them, us, who, which, what, that.

Example: Tell *me,* if *you* please, what time *it* is.

Put into diagram the following sentences. Analyze each sentence and parse each word.

1. James has lost his book.
2. You have torn my hat.
3. I have learned my lesson.
4. They knew their lessons.
5. We understood your explanation.

Parsing.—His is a pronoun. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

His is added, in the diagram, as an adjunct word.

Give a general talk about the lesson.

LESSON XXVII

THE ADJECTIVE

1. I have an apple.
2. I have a large, mellow, sweet apple.
3. I am sick.
4. Three men are on the upper floor.

In 1, apple is the name of a kind of fruit; but we do not know the quality of the apple from the statement here given.

In 2, *large* is used to express the size of the apple, *mellow*, the condition of the apple, and *sweet*, the flavor of the apple. These words *large, mellow,* and *sweet* each express some quality of the apple.

In 3, *sick* is used to express the condition which I am in.

In 4, *three* is used to tell the number of men, and *upper* is used to express the position of the floor.

These words *large, mellow, sweet, sick, three, upper,* are called adjectives, and may be classed under the general term *quality*.

An adjective is a word added to a noun or a pronoun and generally expresses quality; as, "A wise man." "A new book." "You two are diligent."

Copy the following sentences and draw a line under each adjective:

1. The old barn was rebuilt.
2. That little, dilapidated old wooden building was rebuilt.

3. The full moon sheds a soft pale light on the earth.
4. The hot sun wilts the young plants.
5. The bright gorgeous autumn leaves have fallen.
6. The swift golden hours of childhood are passing away.
7. An industrious pupil is sure to have good lessons.
8. Large elms shaded this beautiful street.
9. "Dear, patient, gentle Nell was dead."
10. "The old oaken bucket hangs in the well."
11. "Blooming spring unbends the brow
Of surly, savage winter."
12. "A dewy freshness fills the silent air."

Put into diagram and analyze the following sentences; also tell the part of speech of each word.

1. My old sled was broken.
2. The brave old soldier received a severe wound.
3. April showers bring May flowers.
4. I have a large, red, mellow, sweet apple.
5. James has three large, yellow, ripe peaches.
6. Henry has a fine little spotted dog.

Write sentences each of which will contain one or more of the following words used as adjectives:

Good, bad, outer, inner, western, beautiful, compact, abundant, sour, bitter, slovenly, disinterested, disconnected, ready, willing, mellow, scornful, abstract.

QUESTIONS

1. What is an adjective? 2. To what do adjectives relate? 3. Is an adjective one of the principal parts or an adjunct in a sentence? 4. What is an adjunct? 5. What is the difference between an adjective and a pronoun?

NOTE.—In analysis, such words as *his, her, my, mine, our, their*, etc., are called adjuncts the same as adjectives; but in addition they also denote possession, and that is their principal office usually; as, *his hat* is new. Here *his* denotes possession or ownership and is a pronoun. Adjectives generally express quality only.

LESSON XXVIII

THE PREPOSITION

1. James went *to* New York *on* Wednesday.
2. The book lies *before* me *on* the table.
3. The boy stood *on* the floor *in* the library, *near* the desk, *under* the lamp, *with* a book *in* his hand.

In 1, *to* expresses a relation between went and New York, and *on*, between went and Wednesday.

In 2, *before* expresses a relation between lies and me; *on*, between lies and table.

In 3, *on* expresses a relation between stood and floor; *in*, between stood and library; *near*, between stood and desk; *under*, between stood and lamp; *with*, between stood and book; and *in*, between book and hand.

The noun or pronoun before which a preposition is placed is called its object. Thus, in 2, *table* is the object of the preposition *on*.

A preposition with its object is called a *phrase*.

A sentence is often called a proposition, because it always contains a subject and a predicate.

A phrase is a combination of two or more words used to express some relation of ideas, but not an entire proposition; as, "He is a man *of good habits*," "The book lies *on the table*."

Preposition is from *prae*, meaning *before*, and *positus*, a placing.

A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or pronoun; as, "The book lies before me on the desk."

A preposition is generally a part of a phrase, but a simple phrase is never a sentence.

Copy the following sentences and draw a line under each preposition:

1. The old elm tree stood in the yard by the side of the walk.
2. The roof of the house leaks.
3. Charles put his money into the bank.
4. The trees in the garden are loaded with fruit.
5. An old crow sat on the limb of an old oak tree.
6. The first word of every distinct sentence should begin with a capital.
7. Albany, the capital of the State of New York, is situated on the Hudson River.
8. The relations between words are expressed by prepositions.

Copy the following sentences, and supply suitable prepositions in place of the blanks:

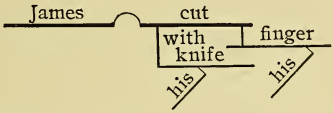
1. The visitors passed out ——— the gate.
2. While ——— sea we hopefully look ——— land.
3. A pin ——— a head is not fit ——— use.
4. I passed a man and a boy ——— my way ——— the village.
5. The squirrel ran ——— the tree and out ——— a limb.
6. Henry is ——— the library ——— a book ——— his hand.
7. All names ——— persons and places should begin ——— capitals.
8. Grandpa walks ——— a cane —— his hand.
9. Henry went ——— his mother ——— the cars ——— the city.
10. James went ——— New York ——— Philadelphia ——— Monday.
11. ——— two mountains lies a fertile valley.
12. The Gulf stream may be traced ——— the shores of the United States ——— the blueness ——— the water.
13. Coal ——— all kinds has originated ——— the decay ——— plants.

Put the following sentences into diagram, give an analysis of each, and tell the parts of speech:

1. James cut his finger with his knife.
2. The chanticleer is crowing in the yard.

3. That little boy with blue eyes has lost his hat.
4. The snowstorm came from the east.
5. This class is composed of real active students.
6. The boy stood on the burning deck.
7. Mary studies her lessons at home.
8. The light streamed through the western window.
9. Shepherds watched their flocks by night.
10. The general rode upon a spirited black horse.

DIAGRAM:



_____This character denotes the preposition and its object.

Write sentences each of which will contain one or more of the following words used as prepositions:

On, in, over, around, under, above, below, beneath, between, behind, against, into, by, beyond, at, to, towards, underneath.

ADDITIONAL EXERCISE

The bird flew { towards the tree. / over the tree. / around the tree. / from the tree. / by the tree. / above the tree. / into the tree.

In the same manner expand the following statements, or form as many sentences as you can from them:

1. The book lies.
2. The dog ran.
3. The man talked.
4. The tree stood.
5. The boy was.
6. The squirrel ran.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a preposition? 2. Of what is the word preposition composed? 3. For what is a preposition used? 4.

What is a phrase? 5. What name is given to a preposition and its object? 6. What is the difference between a phrase and a sentence? 7. Give a general talk about the preposition.

Write about the preposition as you talked about it.

LESSON XXIX

THE ADVERB

1. James came *here very early.*
2. He goes *to school now.*
3. He studies his lessons *carefully,* and he learns them *well.*
4. James is a *very* good boy *at school.*
5. I saw James running *rapidly down the hill.*

In 1, *here* is used to tell the place to which James came, *early* is used to tell the time when he came, and *very* is used to tell how early or the degree of earliness. In 2, *now* is used to tell when the boys go to school. In 3, *carefully* and *well* tell the manner in which he learns his lessons. In 4, *good* is added to boy to express quality, but *very* is used to tell how good or the degree of goodness of the boy; and *at school* is a phrase used to tell the place where the boy is good. In 5, *rapidly* tells how James ran, and the phrase *down the hill,* tells where he ran.

These words used to express *time, place, degree,* and *manner* are called *adverbs.* Phrases used like adverbs are called adverbial phrases. In the sentence, "The boy stood on the burning deck," *on the burning deck* tells where he stood, and is, therefore, an adverbial phrase.

Sometimes a phrase may be used instead of a single word; as,

1. He did the work *immediately*—a word.
2. He did the work *without any delay*—a phrase.

An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner; as, "He talked while here very excitedly." "He stood looking earnestly at the pictures." "He is a very candid man." "I saw the man walking rapidly."

Copy the following sentences and draw a line under each adverb, and each adverbial phrase:

1. The flowers soon fade in the fall of the year.
2. The boys ran away quickly.
3. He acted very strangely and foolishly.
4. The old man walked very slowly and carefully down the hill.
5. I shall go to New York City in a few days.
6. These apples are very sweet.
7. He leaned heavily upon my arm.
8. He spoke forcibly and eloquently.
9. He went to his home yesterday, immediately after dinner.

Copy the following sentences, and supply a suitable adverb in the place of each dash:

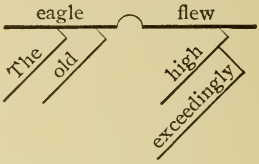
1. That young lady dresses ——— ———.
2. The doctor performed a ——— difficult operation.
3. The fire burns ——— ——— in the grate ———.
4. He spoke ——— and ———.
5. The horse looked ——— and ——— ran ——— ———.
6. ——— few persons are ——— happy.
7. We must win ——— or ———.

Put the following sentences into diagram and tell the parts of speech of each word:

1. The old eagle flew exceedingly high.
2. The fire burns cheerily in the grate to-night.
3. No season of life should be spent in idleness.
4. An unusually large crop has been gathered.
5. "Slowly and sadly we laid him down."
6. Little birds are singing merrily in the trees.

7. "Air is composed chiefly of two invisible gases."
8. The heavenly bodies are always in motion.
9. The work was done very rapidly.
10. I am well acquainted with the boy.

EXAMPLE: 1.



NOTE.—In 2, to-night is a compound word used as an adjunct of burns.

QUESTIONS

1. What is an adverb? 2. When are phrases called adverbial phrases? 3. Give a sentence in which an adverb relates to an adjective. 4. What is the difference in the use of an adjective and an adverb? 5. What is a compound word? 6. Mention one in the exercise for analysis. 7. Give a general talk about the adverb and follow with a written paper.

LESSON XXX

THE PARTICIPLE

1. James *stood* on the walk, *pointed* his finger upward and *said*, "See Old Glory *float* in the breeze!"

2. James, *standing* on the walk with his finger *pointed* upward said, "See Old Glory *floating* in the breeze!"

3. I saw the children *run*, *jump*, and *play* on the green, and heard them *laugh*, *talk*, and *shout*.

4. I saw the children *running*, *jumping*, and *playing* on the green, and heard them *laughing*, *talking*, and *shouting*.

5. The boy is fond of *reading* history.

In 1, *stood*, *pointed* and *said* are used to denote what

James did; and *float* denotes what Old Glory or the flag is doing. These words by use are verbs. In 2, *standing* and *pointing* are used like a verb, to denote action, and they also relate, like an adjective, to James. They, therefore, perform the office of two parts of speech at the same time; that is, of a verb and an adjective, and are therefore called participles. *Floating* denotes the action and situation of Old Glory and is also called a participle. The two words *James stood* make an assertion; but the two words *James standing,* do not make an assertion, consequently *standing* is not a verb. In 3, *run, jump, shout, laugh,* and *talk* denote what children do. In 4, *running, jumping, shouting, laughing,* and *talking* resemble adjectives in relating to children; and they also express action like a verb. They are called PARTICIPLES. In 5, *reading* is used as the name of an action like a noun, and is the object of the preposition *of;* it also denotes action like a verb, and *history* is the object. It therefore partakes of the properties of a noun and a verb, and is called a PARTICIPLE.

A participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; as, "I saw the boy eating apples." "The boy is fond of playing ball."

The participle also performs the office of two parts of speech.

In the sentence *James stands on the walk,* an assertion is made; but in *James standing on the walk,* no assertion is made.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Copy the following sentences and draw a line under each participle:

I. Verb and Adjective.

1. My friend *having failed,* became poor.
2. John *having been promoted,* entered the next class.
3. Arnold, *despised* by all, left the country.
4. "Truth *crushed* to earth will rise again."
5. A large ship *sailing* on the ocean is a beautiful sight.

II. Verb and Noun.

1. He delighted in *doing* mischief.
2. He was satisfied with *having done* his duty.
3. She took pleasure in *being called* amiable.
4. *Doing* good was her chief occupation.
5. Henry is fond of *playing* marbles.

Participles are derived from verbs as follows:

Verbs.

Love—loving, loved, having loved.
Walk—walking, walked, having walked.
Kill—killing, killed, having killed.
Go—going, gone, having gone.
Write—writing, written, having written.

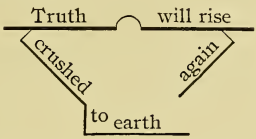
Copy the following sentences, draw a line under each participle, and in recitation tell whether it is used as a verb and a noun or as a verb and an adjective.

1. Edgar, while splitting wood, cut his foot.
2. Your letter, written yesterday, was not mailed.
3. James is fond of riding on his wheel.
4. Disobeying his parents, John went to the pond.
5. The farm hands were engaged in cutting corn.
6. A horse trotting is not necessarily a trotting horse.
7. Playing ball is fine sport for the older boys.
8. Alice is fond of playing the piano and painting pictures.
9. Susie took pleasure in being called amiable.

Put the following sentences into diagram and tell the parts of speech of each word:

1. I saw the horse running down the street.
2. The boy stood on the piazza waving a flag.

3. He stood on deck leaning his head on his hand.
4. James while skating fell on the ice.



This character denotes the participle.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a participle? 2. What parts of speech does each participle represent? 3. Can you give an illustration of the difference between a participle and a verb? 4. What is the difference between an adjective and a participle? 5. Tell what you know about the participles.

LESSON XXXI

THE CONJUNCTION

1. James and John go to school.
2. Henry saws wood. 3. William splits it.
4. Henry saws wood, and William splits it.
5. The pupils read. 6. The pupils write. 7. The pupils cipher.
8. The pupils read and write and cipher.
9. The pupils read, write, and cipher.

In 1, and is used to connect the words *James* and *John* and to show the dependence of these two words upon the word *go;* that is, to denote that both go to school and that James and John taken together are the subject of *go.* Go is used in reference to two persons. We might say James goes to school, John goes to school. Goes would then be used in reference to one person in each sentence.

Sentences 2 and 3 are each called simple sentences; but

when they are connected by *and*, as in sentence 4, they form what is called a compound sentence, and the word *and* is then said to connect sentences.

Sentences 5, 6, and 7 are connected to form sentence 8, which expresses what is stated in the three sentences; *and* is used to connect the three words, read, write, and cipher.

In sentence 9, a comma is used between read and write and another between write and *and*, the *and* being omitted between read and write.

Three or more words of the same class, forming a series, should be separated by commas.

The simple parts of a compound sentence should be separated by a comma; as in 4.

A conjunction is a word used to connect words and sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected; as, "William and James study grammar." "The sun shines during the day, but the moon shines at night." "The sun, moon, and stars are called the heavenly bodies." "Actions, looks, words, and steps form the alphabet of character." "We cannot thrive, unless we are industrious."

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Copy the following sentences, and draw a line under each conjunction. In class exercise, tell what each conjunction connects.

1. Days, months, and years glide rapidly away.
2. Truth always endures, but falsehood perishes.
3. Time and tide wait for no man.
4. We shall improve if we study.
5. Gold and silver are called precious metals.
6. Judson or Jeremiah is to blame.
7. A pupil should be earnest, attentive, and diligent.
8. A brave, prudent, and honorable man was chosen for colonel.
9. Henry is a good boy both at home and at school.

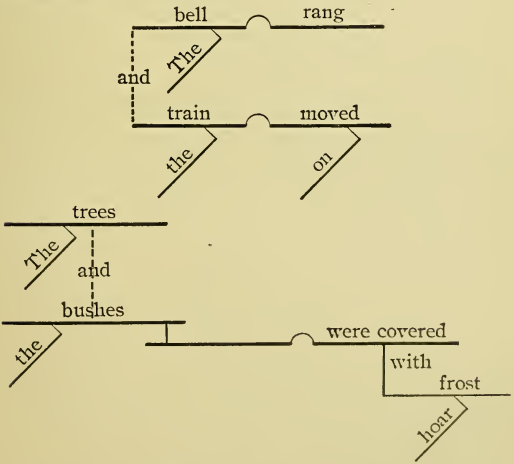
Copy the following sentences and supply conjunctions in the place of blanks:

1. Cherish love ——— unity, ——— they are the source of all true happiness.
2. I will go ——— you will go with me.
3. Columbus believed ——— the earth is round.
4. We love home ——— it be ever so homely.
5. Lead is heavier ——— iron.
6. Peaches, pears, ——— apples are delicious fruits.
7. I think ——— James is older ——— Paul.
8. They listened ——— they did not hear him.
9. Minnie ——— Julia will go ——— you will stay here.

Diagram the following sentences and tell the parts of speech:

1. The bell rang and the train moved on.
2. Man proposes, but God disposes.

EXAMPLES: 1



3. We shall meet again, but we shall miss him.
4. The trees and the bushes were covered with hoar frost.

5. I will not go unless you accompany me.
6. We love him because he first loved us.
7. The ship sails swiftly along, though the waves beat against her.

1. What is a conjunction? 2. How should three or more words forming a series be separated? 3. What point should be used to separate two clauses connected by a conjunction? 4. Where two clauses are connected by a conjunction what kind of sentence is formed? 5. Give a review talk on the lesson.

LESSON XXXII

THE INTERJECTION

1. Hurrah! hurrah! we have won the game.
2. Pshaw! how ridiculous that is!
3. Alas! alas! my poor bird is dead!

In 1, *Hurrah* is used as an exclamation of delight or pleasure, and the sentence, "We have won the game," expresses an emotion of earnestness and joy.

The exclamation point (!) is placed after words or sentences used as exclamations.

In 2, *pshaw* expresses an exclamation of contempt, and the sentence emphasizes that feeling.

In 3, the words Alas! alas! and the sentence My poor bird is dead! each expresses an emotion of sorrow.

Such words as are used to express strong or sudden emotions are called interjections. An exclamation point is placed after such words, or after a sentence when it is uttered in the form of an exclamation of surprise, wonder, or strong emotion of any kind.

An interjection is a word that is uttered merely to express

some strong or sudden emotion; as, Oh! pshaw! hurrah! alas!

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Copy the following sentences, and tell which words are used as interjections; also, tell the exclamatory sentences.

1. Oh! how black that cloud looks! 2. What! will you not go with us? 3. O look! there are three young robins in the nest. 4. Caw! Caw! said the old crow. 5. Hush! keep quiet. 6. Ha! ha! do you think you can catch me? 7. Oh, give me back my early days! 8. Good-bye! 9. Wait! do not go yet.

10. "Charge, Chester, charge! On, Stanley, on!
Were the last words of Marmion."

The pupil should understand that frequently the subject of the sentence is not placed before the verb; as, Caw! caw! said the old crow. Transposed, the sentence will read, The old crow said, caw! caw!

QUESTIONS

1. What is an interjection? 2. What point is placed after a word used as an interjection? 3. What point is used after an exclamatory sentence? 4. Is the subject always placed before the verb? 5. Give an example when it is not. 6. Give a talk on the interjection.

LESSON XXXIII

REVIEW OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

Below are given the definitions of the Parts of Speech. The various uses of every word in the English language may be classed under the ten heads called Parts of Speech. Some words signify names; some, actions; some, qualities; some, relations; some, some manner of action; some, con-

nection; some simply point out words; some represent words; some represent the uses of two parts of speech at the same time; and some are used simply as exclamations.

In studying a sentence, the pupil should first consider the parts of the sentence called Analysis, then the use of each word in a sentence.

An article is the word the, an, or a which we put before nouns to limit their signification; as, *The* boy, *the* boys; *an* ox, *an* apple, *a* boy, *a* box.

A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *Henry, apple, truth, river, mountain, tree, animal.*

An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun and generally expresses quality; as, "A *good* boy." "An *honest* man." "A *fine, large, sweet* apple."

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, "The boy has long lessons, and *he* learns *them* well." "*He* loves *his* book."

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon; as, I *am*, I *rule*, I *am ruled*; I *love*, thou *lovest*, he *loves*.

A participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; and is generally formed by adding ing, d, or ed, to the verb. Thus, from the verb rule are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1, ruling; 2, ruled; 3, having ruled. Examples: "I saw *the* boy *running* down the street." "The boy is fond of *eating* apples."

An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb, and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner; as, "The boys are now *here* studying *very diligently*." "John has a *very* large apple."

A conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected; as, "You *and* John are happy *because*

you are good." "James *and* Henry will go." "Mary *or* Ellen will remain here."

A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun; as, "The paper lies *before* me *on* the desk." "The boy stood *on* the piazza watching the children *at* play *in* the yard."

An interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion; as, *Oh! alas! ah! pshaw!*

WRITTEN REVIEW

1. Write the definitions of the parts of speech and the illustrations; and observe the punctuation points. 2. In the class, repeat the definitions, and give examples to illustrate the use of each definition. The pupil should give other examples than the ones in the book.

LESSON XXXIV

EXPANSION OF SENTENCES WITH ANALYSIS AND PARSING

1. Boys study.
2. Birds sing.
3. Trees grow.
4. The bird is singing.
5. The dog is barking.
6. The boy has been reading a book.
7. The ship sailed.
8. The canary bird sings.
9. The lion roars.
10. The fox caught a hen.
11. The crow flies.
12. The stars twinkle.
13. The sun shines.

In 1, *Boys study* may be expanded into a longer sentence; thus, These industrious little boys study their lessons very carefully at night.

Put this sentence into diagram.

ORAL AND WRITTEN ANALYSIS

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject noun is *boys*, and the adjuncts are *these, industrious,* and *little;* the predicate verb is *study,* and the adjuncts are *carefully* with the adjunct *very,* and the phrase *at night, night* being the principal word in the phrase; the object is *lessons* and the adjunct is *their.*

PARSING

These is used to describe a particular class of boys, and is an adjective.

Industrious is used to express the habits of the boys in regard to study, and is an adjective.

Little is used to describe the size of the boys, and is an adjective.

Boys is the name of a class of persons, and is a noun.

Study is used to denote what boys do, and is a verb.

Their is used instead of the noun boys, and is a pronoun.

Lessons is the name of what the boys study, and is a noun.

Very is used to denote how carefully the boys study, and is an adverb.

Carefully is used to denote how the boys study, and is an adverb.

At is used to express a relation between *study* and *night,* and is a preposition.

Night is used as the name of a portion of time between sunset and sunrise, and is a noun.

The definition of each term should be given so as to make the pupils perfectly familiar with them. By this means the application of definitions is more readily made and understood.

In like manner expand, analyze, and parse each of the thirteen sentences given.

Analyze and parse also the following sentences, and give as fully as you can the particular use of each word:

1. A diligent pupil always makes rapid improvement.
2. The full moon sheds a soft, pale light.

3. That beautiful red rose grew in my garden.

4. Many idle pupils waste their time in play.

5. "The snow-white summits of the mountains tower upward into the blue sky."

6. The little birds are singing sweetly in the groves.

7. A blue-eyed, curly-headed, laughing boy was holding a large red apple in his hand.

8. "The little busy bee gathers honey diligently from the open flowers."

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by expansion of sentences? 2. What is oral analysis? 3. What is a compound word? 4. What is a phrase? 5. What kind of phrase is used in the first sentence at the beginning of the lesson? 6. Tell what you can about this lesson.

CLASSES AND MODIFICATIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

LESSON XXXV

ARTICLES

1. *A* peach, *a* pear, *an* apple, or *an* orange is very delicious.
2. *The* boys in *the* advanced class took *a* sail on *the* lake.

The words in italics used in the sentences given are called ARTICLES.

A is used before WORDS beginning with a CONSONANT SOUND, and always denotes ONE THING OF A KIND, but not MORE THAN ONE; as, *A* man, *a* horse, *a* wonder, *a* one, *a* yew, *a* use, *a* ewer.

An is used before WORDS beginning with a VOWEL SOUND, and also denotes ONE THING OF A KIND; as, *An* art, *an* end, *an* heir, *an* inch, *an* ounce, *an* hour, *an* urn.

The is used to denote some particular THING, OR THINGS; as, *The* house on *the* hill; *the* boys on *the* pond.

For this reason ARTICLES are classed as DEFINITE and INDEFINITE. THE is called the DEFINITE ARTICLE, and A or AN the INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

An article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before a noun to limit its signification.

The definite article is the, which denotes some particular thing, or things; as, "The boy"; "the oranges."

The indefinite article is an or a, which denotes one thing of a kind, but not any particular one; as, "A boy"; "an orange."

QUESTIONS

1. What is an article? a definite article? an indefinite article? 2. Before words beginning with what sound is *a* used? is *an* used? is *the* used? 3. Why is *a* or *an* called the indefinite article?

Write sentences each of which shall contain one of the following words with an article before it:

Apple, house, eagle, hour, man, watch, onion, union, yoke, heir, hero, elm.

Write such sentences that each will contain one of the following expressions with an article before it:

Honest man, hour-glass, useful thing, very fine day, unusually good time.

Tell what you know about this lesson.

Describe in writing the articles and their classes.

LESSON XXXVI

NOUNS—CLASSES

1. Adam, Charles, Henry, and Philip are the names of individual persons.

2. The Britons, the Scotchmen, the Americans, are the names of particular classes of people who live in different parts of the world.

3. The Bahamas, the West Indies, the Philippines, are the names of particular groups of islands.

4. The Apennines, the Alleghanies, the Sierra Madre, are the names of particular ranges or groups of mountains.

5. Pike's Peak, Mount Mitchell, Mt. Popocatepetl, are the names of individual mountains.

6. Hudson River, Connecticut River, Mississippi River, are the names of individual rivers.

The names given in the six sentences are names of particular individuals, persons, places, rivers, and mountains; also of classes of people, of groups of islands, and ranges of mountains. All these names are PROPER NAMES, and are called PROPER NOUNS.

A proper noun is the name of some particular individual, or people, or group; as, Adam, Boston, the Hudson, the Azores, the Romans, the Alps. (See proper names in Lesson VI, all of which are proper nouns.)

1. *Beech, birch, maple, hemlock,* and *hickory* are the names of different classes of trees.

2. *Buckwheat, corn, potatoes, millet,* and *rye* are raised on the farm.

3. The farmer sorts his potatoes. The printer sorts his type. Some *sorts* are better than others.

All WORDS used as NAMES that are not particular names are classed as COMMON NOUNS.

A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class of

beings or things; as, persons, children, creatures, beast, bird, fish, insect, sound, roses.

Some nouns are classed as collective, abstract, and verbal or participial nouns.

A collective noun is the name of many individuals together; as, council, committee, meeting.

An abstract noun is the name of some particular quality considered apart from its substance; as, *goodness* from good; *hardness* from hard; *pride* from proud, *frailty* from frail.

A verbal or participial noun is the name of some action or state of being; as, "The triumphing of the wicked is short;" "*Walking* is a good exercise."

Write sentences each of which will contain one of the following words used as a noun, and tell the class to which the noun belongs:

Henry, James, Mary, Austrians, Italians, Aleutian Islands, Mozambique Channel, New York Bay, Cape Charles, Rocky Mountains, The Adirondacks, Gettysburg, chalk, pine, music, painting, committee, reading, walking, honesty, goodness, truthfulness.

Classify the nouns in the following sentences, and tell the class to which each belongs.

1. John's son went to Chicago last week.
2. The Epworth League convention was held in San Francisco, Cal., in July, 1901.
3. Cain showed the hardness of his heart in the killing of his brother Abel.
4. The Mississippi is the longest river in the world.
5. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are fundamental studies.
6. Trenton, the capital of New Jersey, is situated on the Delaware River.
7. Rudeness of manners denotes a lack of culture.
8. His peevishness made him an unpleasant companion.
9. Longfellow, the American poet, wrote Evangeline.
10. The council held a meeting in Music Hall.

11. He heard the puffing of the engine and the rumbling of the wheels before the train came around the curve.

12. The Hudson River was discovered by Henry Hudson.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a proper noun? a common noun? 2. What is a collective noun? an abstract noun? a verbal noun? 3. How do you distinguish between a proper noun and a common noun? 4. Under the head of common nouns are three particular classes of nouns; what are they called? 5. Give a review of the classes of nouns.

LESSON XXXVII

MODIFICATIONS—PERSONS AND NUMBERS

1. The bird flies. The birds fly.
2. John has a sheep and a pony.
3. There is a flock of sheep in the lot.

In 1, bird denotes only one; but *s* added to *bird* forms *birds*, which means more than one.

In 2, sheep denotes only one; but in 3, sheep denotes a number of animals.

Such changes in the form or in the use of words are called *modifications*.

Modification is a change in the form or the use of a word.

A change in the form of a word is called an inflection.

Nouns have modifications of four kinds; namely, Persons, Numbers, Genders, and Cases.

PERSONS

A person may be speaking, he may be spoken to, or he may be spoken of. The forms showing these modifica-

tions are called, respectively, FIRST PERSON, SECOND PERSON, and THIRD PERSON.

Persons in grammar are modifications that distinguish the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing merely spoken of.

There are three persons; the first, the second, and the third.

The first person is that which denotes the speaker or writer; as, "*I Paul*, have written it."

The second person is that which denotes the hearer, or the person addressed; as, "*Robert*, who did this?"

The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of; as, "*James* loves his *book*."

OBSERVATION.—The speaker seldom refers to himself by name as the speaker; consequently nouns are rarely used in the first person.

QUESTIONS

1. What are modifications? 2. What are inflections? 3. What are persons in grammar? 4. How many persons are there, and what are they? 5. What is the first person? the second person? the third person? 6. Give an example of the use of each person. 7. In what person is a noun seldom used? Why?

Write a sentence containing a noun in the FIRST PERSON.

Write five sentences each containing a noun in the SECOND PERSON.

Write five sentences each containing a noun in the THIRD PERSON.

LESSON XXXVIII

NUMBERS

1. *Pen* denotes one thing. *Pens* denote more than one.
2. A box of pens; boxes of pens.
3. Page, pages, fox, foxes.

Any SINGLE THING is said in grammar to be in the SINGULAR NUMBER; as, *box, pencil, slate, seat, chair, pen.* In *box of pens, box* is singular, although it contains many pens; and *parcel, handful, bushel, package,* are singular, because each may contain many things taken together as a unit.

In 3, *s* added to page forms *pages;* and *es* added to *fox* forms *foxes.* *Pages* and *foxes* each means more than one, and denote what is called in grammar the PLURAL NUMBER.

The PLURAL NUMBER of NOUNS is regularly formed by adding *s* or *es* to the SINGULAR; as, *book, books; church, churches.*

A single thing is called a UNIT or UNITY, meaning ONE.

Two or more things denote PLURALITY, or more than ONE.

Numbers are modifications that distinguish unity and plurality.

There are two numbers, the singular and the plural.

The singular number is that which denotes but one; as, "The *boy* learns."

The plural number is that which denotes more than one; as, "The *boys* run."

HOW TO FORM THE PLURAL FROM THE SINGULAR

1. When a singular noun ends in a sound which will unite with that of *s*, the plural generally is formed by adding *s* only, and the number of syllables is not increased; as, *pen, pens; grape, grapes; boy, boys; slate, slates.*

2. But when the sound of *s* cannot be united with that of the primitive word, the plural adds *s* to final *e*, and *es* to all other terminations, and forms a separate syllable; as,

page,	pages;	fox,	foxes;
cage,	cages;	box,	boxes;
rage,	rages;	catch,	catches.

3. Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant add *es*, but do not increase their syllables; as,

motto,	mottoes;	hero,	heroes;
grotto,	grottoes;	potato,	potatoes.

Other nouns ending in *o* add *s* only; as,

folio,	folios;	cameo,	cameos.

4. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *i* and add *es* without increase of syllables; as,

fly,	flies;	duty,	duties;
variety,	varieties;	policy,	policies.

Other nouns in *y* add *s* only; as,

day,	days;	valley,	valleys;
play,	plays;	alley,	alleys.

5. The following nouns in *f*, change *f* into *v*, and add *es* for the plural; as,

sheaf,	sheaves;	leaf,	leaves;
loaf,	loaves;	beef,	beeves;
thief,	thieves;	calf,	calves;
elf,	elves;	shelf,	shelves;
self,	selves;	wolf,	wolves;
wharf,	wharves.		

Life, lives; knife, knives; wife, wives, are similar.

6. The greater number of nouns in *f* and *fe* are regular; as,

fife,	fifes;	grief,	griefs;
chief,	chiefs;	reef,	reefs;
gulf,	gulfs;	roof,	roofs.

7. Many foreign nouns retain their original plural; as,

arcanum,	arcana;	radius,	radii;
vortex,	vortices;	axis,	axes;
phenomenon,	phenomena;	seraph,	seraphim;
datum,	data.		

8. The following are very irregular:

man,	men;	woman,	women;
child,	children;	brother,	brethren [brothers];
foot,	feet;	ox,	oxen;
tooth,	teeth;	goose,	geese;

louse, lice; mouse, mice;
Dies (stamps) and pennies (coins) are regular.

9. Some words are alike in both numbers; as,

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
sheep,	*sheep;*	*deer,*	*deer;*
swine,	*swine;*	*hose,*	*hose;*
means,	*means;*	*odds,*	*odds;*
species,	*species;*	*series,*	*series;*
apparatus,	*apparatus.*		

10. Compounds in which the principal word is put first vary the principal word to form the plural, and the adjunct to form the possessive case; as,

Singular.	Plural.	Possessive Case.
father-in-law,	*fathers-in-law,*	*father-in-law's.*

11. Compounds ending in *ful,* and all those in which the principal word is put last, form the plural in the same manner as other nouns; as,

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
handful,	*handfuls;*	*spoonful,*	*spoonfuls;*
mouthful,	*mouthfuls;*	*pailful,*	*pailfuls;*
fellow-servant,	*fellow-servants;*	*man-servant,*	*man-servants.*

12. Nouns of multitude, when taken collectively, admit the plural form; as,

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
meeting,	*meetings;*	*committee,*	*committees.*

When such nouns are taken distributively, they have a plural signification without the form; as, The *jury* were divided.

Observations.—Some nouns have no plural; as, *gold, pride, meekness.* Others have no singular; as, *bellows, ides, tidings, scissors, tongs, vespers, victuals.*

EXERCISE

Write the following nouns in the plural number:

Child, box, tree, mouse, foot, tooth, knife, ox, brother, radius, woman, goose, axis, handful, hero, loaf, vortex, basis, cargo, lady, sheep, success, meeting, species, die, means, apparatus, phenomenon, brother-in-law.

QUESTIONS

1. What kind of word is father-in-law? 2. What is a noun of multitude? 3. In father-in-law which is the principal word? Which the adjunct? 4. What is meant by the term collectively? distributively? 5. What is a foreign noun?

Ans. A noun taken from another language without change in spelling.

LESSON XXXIX

MODIFICATIONS. GENDERS

1. Man, father, son, brother, boy, king.
2. Woman, mother, daughter, sister, girl, queen.
3. Book, pen, water, truth, reason, knowledge, gold.
4. Parents, child, cousin, person, animal.

Some nouns are used to distinguish persons of the male sex, as in 1; some to distinguish persons of the female sex, as in 2; and some are used to distinguish things that are neither male nor female, as in 3; other words may represent either sex or both. To all such words is applied the term GENDER.

Genders are modifications that distinguish objects in regard to sex.

The masculine gender is that which denotes persons or animals of the male kind; as, man, father, lion, king.

The feminine gender is that which denotes persons or animals of the female kind; as, woman, mother, queen, lioness, cow.

The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female; as, pen, ink, paper.

NOTE.—Some nouns may be applied to either sex; as, cousin, neighbor, friend, parent, servant.

Sometimes the gender may be determined by the context; that is, by the use of other words in the same connection.

EXAMPLE: "My cousin was here yesterday, but she returned home last evening." In this sentence *she* denotes the gender of *cousin*. "Henry's parents live in the country." "Henry's father and mother live in the country." Here *father* and *mother* represent *parents*.

THE SEXES ARE DENOTED IN THREE WAYS:

1. BY THE USE OF DIFFERENT NAMES; as, *bachelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen.*

2. BY THE USE OF DIFFERENT TERMINATIONS; as, *abbot, abbess; hero, heroine; administrator, administratrix.*

3. BY PREFIXING AN ATTRIBUTE OF DISTINCTION; as, *cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; man-servant, maid-servant; he-goat, she-goat.*

OBSERVATIONS.—The names of things without life, used literally (according to the primitive use of the word), are always of the neuter gender. But inanimate objects (objects without life) are often represented figuratively (like a person) as having sex. Things remarkable for power, greatness, or sublimity are spoken of as masculine; as, the *sun, time, death, sleep, fear, anger, winter, war.* Things beautiful, amiable, or prolific are spoken of as feminine; as, the *moon, earth, nature, fortune, knowledge, hope, spring, peace.*

QUESTIONS

1. What are genders? 2. What is the masculine gender? the feminine gender? the neuter gender? 3. Give examples of words that may represent either gender. 4. Give example of a word that may represent both masculine and feminine gender. 5. Define *termination, attribute, literally, figuratively, attribute of distinction, inanimate, primitive word, prefixing.*

NOTE.—This lesson affords a spelling exercise, both *oral* and *written*.

LESSON XL

CASES

1. The boy studies.
2. John's hat is torn.
3. Birds sing songs.
4. Henry recited his lesson to Mary.

The relation which a noun or a pronoun sustains to some

other word is called CASE. Thus, in 1, *boy* is used as the subject of *studies* and is said to be in the *nominative case.*

In 2, *John's* is used to denote possession and is said to be in the *possessive case.*

In 3, *songs* is used as the object of *sing* and is said to be in the *objective case.*

In 4, *Mary* is used to denote the person to whom Henry recites his lesson and is said to be in the *objective case* and object of the preposition *to.*

Cases are modifications that distinguish the relation of nouns and pronouns to other words; as, "Mary gave her book to Charles."

There are three cases: the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb; as, "The *boy* runs"; "*I* run."

The possessive case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun which usually denotes the relation of property; as, "The *boy's* hat"; "*my* hat."

The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun which usually denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition; as, "I know the *boy:* he knows *me.*" "James sat by the *window* reading a *book.*"

The possessive case of nouns is formed, in the singular number, by adding to the nominative *s,* preceded by an apostrophe; and, in the plural, when the nominative ends in *s,* by adding an apostrophe only; as, boy, boy's, boys'.

QUESTIONS

1. What are cases? 2. How many cases are there? 3. What is the nominative case? the possessive case? the objective case? 4. How is the possessive case of nouns formed in the singular? in the plural?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write such sentences that each one will contain one of the following words used in the nominative case: Henry, I, we, you, they, she, he.

Write such sentences that each one will contain one of the following words used in the possessive case: John's, Sarah's, beggar's, boy's, bird's, John Wanamaker's.

Write such sentences that each one will contain one of the following words used in the objective case: Lesson, teacher, wood, ax, corn, garden, ball, field.

LESSON XLI

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

The declension of a noun or a pronoun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

Nouns are declined as in the following examples:

EXAMPLE 1.—FRIEND

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	friend,	*Nom.*	friends,
Poss.	friend's,	*Poss.*	friends',
Obj.	friend.	*Obj.*	friends.

EXAMPLE 2.—MAN

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	man,	*Nom.*	men,
Poss.	man's,	*Poss.*	men's,
Obj.	man.	*Obj.*	men.

EXAMPLE 3.—FOX

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	fox,	*Nom.*	foxes,
Poss.	fox's,	*Poss.*	foxes',
Obj.	fox.	*Obj.*	foxes.

EXAMPLE 4.—FLY

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom.	fly,	*Nom.*	flies,
Poss.	fly's,	*Poss.*	flies',
Obj.	fly.	*Obj.*	flies.

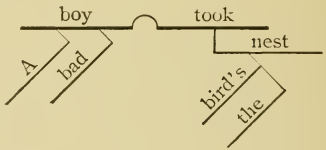
EXERCISE

In the same manner write the declension of:

Goose, sheep, child, mouse, woman, wife, ox, horse, James, boy, lady, bird, prince, princess, teacher, scholar, parent, farmer.

EXERCISE IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Example: A bad boy took the bird's nest.



Analysis.

This is a simple declarative sentence.

The subject is *boy*, and the adjuncts of the subject are *a* and *bad;* the predicate is *took;* and the object is *nest;* the adjunct of the object is *bird's*, and the adjunct of bird's is *the.*

Parsing.—*A* is the indefinite article and limits the signification of *boy.*

Bad is an adjective, and is added to the noun *boy.*

Boy is a common noun; of the third person, because it is spoken of; of the singular number, because it denotes but one; of the masculine gender, because it denotes a male; and in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *took.*

Took is a verb signifying action.

The is the definite article limiting the signification of the noun *bird's.*

Bird's is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, feminine gender (because here it denotes a female bird), and in the possessive case, because it denotes the possession of the nest.

Nest is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender (because it is neither male nor female), and in the objective case, because it is the object of the verb *took.*

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

1. The cat caught a mouse.
2. The dog ran after the fox.
3. The cow gives rich milk.
4. The tree produces much fruit.
5. The fire destroyed many fine buildings.
6. The eagle has a piercing eye.
7. William lost Mary's new book.
8. How did John break the boy's slate?
9. Foxes' tails are very long.
10. The bird's plumage is very beautiful.
11. Birds' feathers are very light.
12. The men's work was toilsome.
13. Cæsar made many conquests.
14. Rome had many great generals.
15. Washington's character was truly great.
16. A soldier's life is always perilous.

NOTE.—The sentences in the preceding lessons may be used for further work in analysis and parsing.

LESSON XLII

EXERCISES IN CONSTRUCTION

Construction is the combination of words into sentences. Composition is the combination of sentences to express thought.

Write three sentences so that each will contain a noun in the nominative case; the possessive case; the objective case.

Write such sentences that each will contain one or more of the following words:

Man's, farmer's, house, barn, field, ploughing, planting, sowing, seed, lakes, rivers, streams, fish, net, Charles, boat, ship, schoolmaster, loving, kind, teacher, parents, obey, commands, disobedient, never, wrong, always, truth, brothers, sisters, beautiful, disgraceful, courageous, James's, Charles's, William's, prince's, princess's, brother-in-law's, tablespoonfuls.

Observations.—To avoid the double hissing sound of *s*, the possessive case is sometimes indicated by the apostrophe only, the *s* being omitted; as, Moses' rod; the princess' portrait; for conscience' sake. As a rule, however, the *s* should be used.

A noun in the possessive case is an adjective adjunct. It may be changed into a simple phrase adjunct by using the preposition *of* and the noun in the objective case; as, The deer's horns,—equivalent to the horns of the deer.

Construct a sentence from each of the following, changing the phrase form into the possessive, or the possessive into the phrase.

1. The cunning of the fox.
2. The sagacity of the elephants.
3. The bleating of the sheep.
4. The diamonds of the princess.
5. Birds' nests.
6. The kindness of the lady.
7. The dresses of the ladies.
8. The king's authority.
9. The teacher's efforts.
10. The patriotism of Washington.
11. The enterprise of Columbus.
12. The kindness of William Penn.
13. The telescope of Lord Rosse.
14. The works of Charles Dickens.

Write three sentences, using the same word in the singular and plural, and in the nominative, the possessive, and the objective case.

Write three sentences in a similar manner on the following subjects:

Tooth, valley, fox, calf, fly, father-in-law, spoonful, goose, child, woman, nephew, niece, empress, governor, governess.

LESSON XLIII

ADJECTIVES—CLASSES

Some ADJECTIVES express quality; as, a large, red, sweet apple; some situation; as, the upper floor, the front piazza. Such are called COMMON ADJECTIVES.

A common adjective is any ordinary adjective or epithet denoting quality or situation; as, good, bad, peaceful, warlike, eastern, western, outer, inner.

Some adjectives are formed from proper names; as, Italian, from Italy; French, from France; Scotch, from Scotland; Roman, from Rome; Chilian, from Chili; Japanese, from Japan; Mexican, from Mexico.

A proper adjective is one derived from a proper name; as, American, from America; English, from England; Platonic, from Plato.

Sometimes an adjective expresses a definite number; as, *three* apples; *four* boys; *six* pencils. Such are called NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

A numeral adjective is one that expresses a definite number; as, one, two, three, four, five, six, etc.

Numeral adjectives are of three kinds; namely,

1. CARDINAL; as, one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, etc.
2. ORDINAL; as, first, second, third, fourth, fifth, etc.
3. MULTIPLICATIVE; as, single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, etc.

Sometimes an adjective is used to define, or distinguish, and not to state quality of the person or thing referred to. Such adjectives may be placed before the nouns to which they refer, or represent them understood. Thus: *That* statement is true. *That* is true. Both persons are guilty. *Both* are guilty. Each person confessed his guilt. *Each*

confessed his guilt. Such are called PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

A pronominal adjective is a definitive word which may either accompany its noun or represent it understood; as, "All [men] join to guard what each [man] desires to gain."

The following are the principal pronominal adjectives:

All, any, both, each, either, every, few, former, first, latter, last, many, neither, none, one, other, same, some, such, this, that, which, what.

Some words have the form of a participle, but do not partake of the nature of a verb. They merely describe or express quality; as, a *trying* position; a *trotting* horse; a *frozen* river. Such words are called PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.

A participial adjective is one that has the form of a participle, but differs from it by rejecting the idea of time; as, "An *amusing* story." "The *winning* horse."

Sometimes words are joined together by a hyphen and used as adjectives; as, The *star-spangled* banner; a *long-lived* family; a *well-written* composition. Such words are called COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

A compound adjective is one that consists of two or more words joined together; as, Nut-brown, laughter-loving, four-footed.

Put the following sentences into diagram, tell the parts of speech, classify the adjectives, and give the modifications of the article and the noun.

1. Mary has a bouquet of beautiful, fragrant flowers.
2. Jane has two little pet kittens.
3. The farmer has a fine orchard of thrifty trees.
4. Four deer have been shot this week.
5. The little busy bee gathers honey diligently from the open flowers.

6. A blue-eyed, curly-haired, laughing boy held a large red apple in his hand.
7. Henry went to California by the Southern Pacific Railroad.
8. The vessel sailed under the Spanish flag.
9. The man has a high Roman nose.
10. These girls have two large ripe pears.

LESSON XLIV

ADJECTIVES—MODIFICATIONS

1. This is a *hot* day.
2. This is a *hotter* day than yesterday.
3. This is the *hottest* day so far this summer.

In 1, the adjective *hot*, in its simple form, expresses a quality of day; and in this form the adjective is said to be in the POSITIVE DEGREE.

The positive degree is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simplest form; as, "A *sweet* apple." "A *large* man." "A *fine* day."

In 2, the adjective *hotter* expresses a greater degree of heat than *hot* in 1. In this form the adjective is said to be in the COMPARATIVE DEGREE.

The comparative degree is that which exceeds the positive; as, "A *sweeter* apple." "A *larger* man." "A *finer* day."

In 3, the adjective *hottest* expresses the highest degree of comparison; and in this form the adjective is said to be in the SUPERLATIVE DEGREE; as, The *sweetest* apple; the *largest* man; the *finest* day.

The superlative degree is that which is not exceeded; as, hardest, softest, best.

Some adjectives do not admit of comparison; as, *two, second, all, total, immortal, infinite.*

Those adjectives which may be varied in sense, but not in form, are compared by means of adverbs; as, skillful, more skillful, most skillful.

Diminution of quality is expressed, in like manner, by the adverbs *less* and *least;* as, wise, *less* wise, *least* wise; famous, *less* famous, *least* famous.

Most adjectives of more than one syllable must be compared by means of adverbs, because they do not admit a change of termination; thus, we may say virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; but not virtuouser, virtuousest.

Adjectives are regularly compared when the comparative degree is expressed by adding *er,* and the superlative by adding *est* to them; as,

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
great,	greater,	greatest.
wide,	wider,	widest.
hot,	hotter,	hottest.

The method of comparison by *er* and *est* is chiefly applicable to monosyllables, and dissyllables ending in *y* or mute *e.*

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: *Good, better, best; bad* or *ill, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, more, most; many, more, most; far, farther, farthest; late, later, latest* or *last.*

Observations.—The prefixing of an adverb can hardly be called a variation of the adjective. The words may with more propriety be taken separately, the degree being ascribed to the adverb, or to each word.

Compare the following adjectives, regularly, irregularly, or by means of adverbs as each may require:

Strong, wise, gentle, noble, famous, useful, fortunate, happy, elegant, little, small, many, few, late, early, virtuous, beautiful, narrow, simple.

Put the following sentences into diagram, tell the parts of speech, and give the modifications of the article, the noun, and the comparison of the adjectives.

1. A truly honest man will observe the golden rule of life.
2. Evil communications corrupt good manners.
3. The song of the wood-dove has died on our shore.
4. "A purple robe his dying frame shall fold."
5. The dry leaves are whirled in autumn's rising blast.
6. A trifling accident often produces great results.
7. "A flatterer is a most dangerous enemy."
8. Virtuous youth brings forward flourishing manhood.
9. Proficiency in language is a rare accomplishment.
10. A noble mind scorns a mean action.

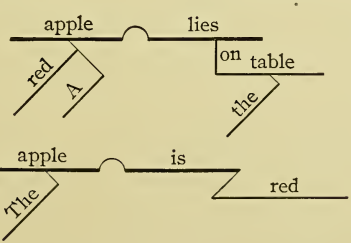
PARSING

Honest is a common adjective of the positive degree; compared positive, honest; comparative, more honest; superlative, most honest, and relates to *man*. Give definitions.

LESSON XLV

THE ATTRIBUTE

1. A red apple lies on the table.
2. The apple is red.
3. Gold is a metal.
4. New York is a great city.
5. It is I.
6. The sun is shining.



This character represents the attribute.

In 1, the adjective *red* is an adjunct of the subject and relates directly to apple to express quality; while in 2, *red* forms a part of the predicate, and the quality which it expresses is attributed to the subject apple through the predicate; for this reason it is called, in grammar, an attribute of the subject. Other examples may be given; as, Sugar is sweet. The melons are ripe. Trees are tall. The grass is green. The sky looks blue.

In 3, metal is attributed to gold, but metal is the name of a mineral and is a noun. It describes gold by telling what it is; that is, to what class it belongs; therefore a noun may be attributed to the subject.

In 4, *city* is attributed to New York to tell what it is, and it is called an attribute.

In 5, the pronoun *I* is attributed to *it* to signify its meaning, and is also called an attribute.

In 6, *shining* is attributed to sun, yet in this case *shining* is considered a part of the verb; and in parsing, *is shining* is called the verb.

Any verb, except the forms of the verb *be*, contains an attribute within itself; as, in the sentence *He reads*, reads is equivalent to *is reading*.

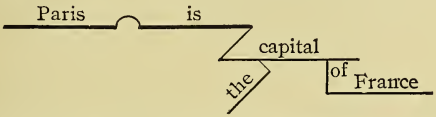
An attribute is an adjective, a noun, a pronoun, or a participle used in the predicate but *relating* to the subject; as, "Gold is *yellow*." "Iron is a *mineral*." "Chicago is a large *city*." "It is *I*." "The grass is *sparkling* with dew"; *is sparkling* is called the verb.

NOTE.—An attribute, in grammar, is a word which is affirmed of the subject or attributed to it through the predicate. Some grammarians say such words are predicated of the subject and designate them *Predicate Adjectives, Predicate Pronouns,* or *Predicate Nouns;* but the term *attribute,* while *simpler,* is also a better term to use in the analyses of sentences for the same reason. The term attribute also denotes the different uses of each of such words when used in the predicate from its other uses in sentences.

Put the following sentences into diagram, give an oral analysis, tell the parts of speech in each, and give modifications as in former lessons.

EXAMPLE: Paris is the capital of France.

DIAGRAM:



ANALYSIS: This is a simple declarative sentence. *Paris* is the subject, *is* is the predicate verb, and *capital* is the attribute. The adjuncts of capital are *the* and the phrase *of France*, France being the principal word in the phrase.

PARSING

Capital is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and in the nominative case after the verb *is*, being used as an attribute of the subject.

Parse the other words as in the preceding lessons.

1. Gold is a valuable metal.
2. Washington was a true patriot.
3. The sky is blue.
4. Honesty is the best policy.
5. Strawberries are a delicious fruit.
6. A dictionary is a very useful book.
7. The horse is a valuable animal.
8. The snow is quite deep at the present time.
9. New York is a great commercial city.
10. Thomas Jefferson was the third president of the United States.

QUESTIONS: 1. What is an attribute? 2. What parts of speech may be used as an attribute? 3. Which part of speech used as an attribute is combined with the verb to make a compound form of the verb?

CASES IN DIFFERENT FORMS OF CONSTRUCTION

1. It is he.
2. The boy is eight years old.

3. Long Island is a part of the State of New York.
4. He walked a mile.
5. Henry played me a trick.
6. I envy him his good health.
7. John brought Edward a new pair of skates.
8. The boy was taught grammar.
9. Henry, you may write these sentences on the blackboard.

REMARKS.—In 1, *he* is in the nominative case after the verb *is*, because it is used in the sentence as an attribute of it; that is, both words *he* and *it* refer to the same thing.

In 2, the sentence may be written with words supplied to express clearly the meaning intended by the writer, thus illustrating a principle of grammar; namely, that all words necessary to express the sense intended by the writer are as much a part of the sentence as if the words were written. Example: *The boy is old to the extent of eight years.*

In 4, there are other words which are necessary to express the proper relation of the different words clearly; namely, *He walked over the distance of a mile.*

In 5, supply *on* and the sentence will read, *Henry played a trick on me.*

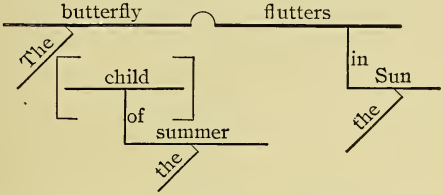
In 6, I have a feeling of discontent because his health is better than mine; therefore, *I envy him because he has good health.*

In 8, *The boy was taught grammar* is an idiomatic form of construction. Grammar was taught to the boy, is the regular form of construction, and is preferable to the other form; but the other form is sanctioned by good writers; therefore grammarians say that grammar is in the objective case.

The expression is called an idiom of the language.

An idiom is a mode of expression which is peculiar to a particular language.

Put the nine sentences into diagram in accordance with the preceding remarks, tell the parts of speech and the case of each noun and pronoun; also diagram, give oral analysis, and parse each word in the following sentences;



NOTE—Child is here used to explain butterfly, and is in the same case in apposition to it.

Apposition is the addition of a word used in the same construction, in order to explain a preceding word in a sentence.

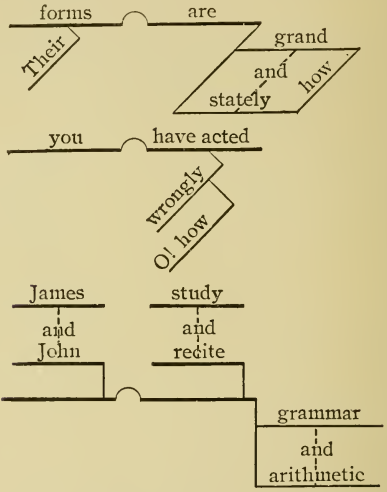
1. Henry, the mail carrier, is late this morning.
2. Willie, the fat boy, fell on the ice and sprained his ankle.
3. Harry owes me ten dollars.
4. Washington is called the Father of his Country.
5. Henry, can you analyze this sentence?

LESSON XLVI

Give an analysis of the following simple and compound sentences, tell the parts of speech and their modifications so far as you have learned them.

1. Trees are beautiful productions of Nature.
2. How grand and stately are their forms!
3. Willis, study your lesson carefully.
4. Tell me, William, if you can.
5. Oh! how wrongly you have acted.
6. James and Henry study and recite grammar and arithmetic.

NOTE.—Observe the following diagrams, and explain the relations of the words to one another.



Analyze also the following sentences:

1. Good books always deserve a careful perusal.
2. Suddenly acquired wealth rarely brings happiness.
3. A man of integrity obeys the dictates of conscience.
4. Henry and George go to school this winter.
5. He came home in the spring of the year.
6. "Virtue is its own reward and vice brings its own punishment."
7. He strides along with stateliness and pride.
8. A golden staff his steps supported.
9. "Darkly moves each giant bough
 O'er the sky's last crimson glow."
10. "Nature, with folded hands, seemed there
 Kneeling at her evening prayer."
11. "Slowly and sadly they climb the distant mountains,
 And read their doom in the setting sun."

12. "His hair falls round his blushing cheek in wreaths of waving light."

13. "Wreaths of smoke ascend through the trees,
And betray the half-hidden cottage."

QUESTIONS

1. What is an attribute? 2. What verbs contain an attribute within themselves? 3. How does an attribute differ from an object? 4. What part of speech must an attribute be to form a part of a compound verb?

Write sentences each of which will contain one of the following words used as an attribute:

Sun, moon, sky, ground, orange, penknife, Martha, horse, fox, chanticleer, village, blue, chatterbox.

LESSON XLVII

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

1. *I* gave the book to the boy, but *he* has lost *it.*
2. Liest *thou* asleep beneath *these* hills of snow?
3. Clara said that *she* would give the book to Charles.
4. The boy *who* studies will improve *his* mind.
5. The flowers *which* bloom in the spring are beautiful.
6. A figure *that* has three sides is a triangle.
7. "*He that* walketh uprightly walketh surely."
8. *He* is ashamed of *what he* has done.

The five pronouns in the first three sentences, namely, *I*, of the first person; *thou*, of the second person; *he, she,* and *it,* of the third person, are called simple PERSONAL PRONOUNS. Their variations will be given under the declension of pronouns.

A personal pronoun is a pronoun which shows by its form of what person it is; that is, the word itself shows whether it is of the first, second, or third person.

My and self united form the compound myself.

The compound personal pronouns are also five; namely, myself, of the first person; thyself, of the second person; himself, herself, and itself, of the third person.

A compound personal pronoun is used when the action reverts upon the agent; as, "He injured himself;" or for special emphasis; as, "He himself is to blame."

A sentence may contain two clauses, one called the principal clause, and the other the dependent clause, because it is related to the principal clause, or is dependent on it; as in sentences 4 to 8.

In sentence 5, "The flowers are very beautiful" is the principal clause; and "which bloom in the spring" is the dependent clause. It is also called a relative clause. The word *which* represents its antecedent, flowers, in the principal clause, and is also the subject of bloom in the dependent clause; for this reason it is called a RELATIVE PRONOUN.

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that represents an antecedent word or phrase and connects different clauses of a sentence.

The relative pronouns are *who, which, what,* and *that;* and the compounds, *whoever* or *whosoever, whichever,* or *whichsoever, whatever* or *whatsoever.*

The person, number, and gender of a relative pronoun are the same as those of the antecedent word which it represents.

The words *who, which,* and *what* are also used in asking questions, and are then called *interrogative pronouns;* as, Who goes there? What did he say? Which will you take? Whom did you see?

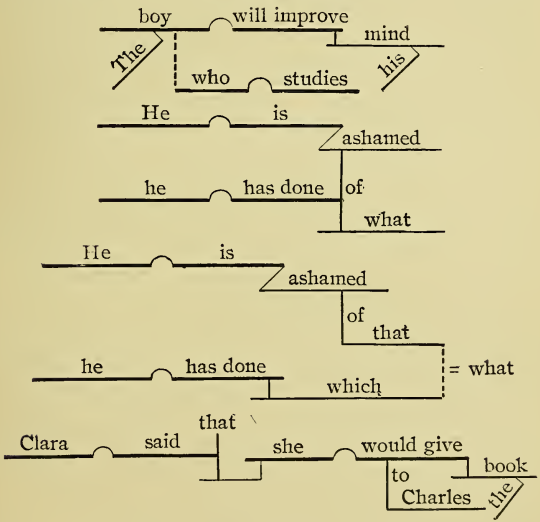
An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun with which a question is asked.

Who is usually applied to persons only; *which,* though formerly applied to persons, is now confined to brute

animals and inanimate things; *what*, as a mere pronoun, is applied to things only; *that* is applied indifferently to persons, animals, and things.

What is sometimes equivalent to an article or an adjective and a relative, being placed before the noun which it represents; as, "What money he had was taken away;" that is, the money which he had was taken away.

Observe carefully the following diagrams, and give an oral analysis of each; then diagram the other sentences.



In 3, that she would give the book to Charles, is an object clause used in the same manner that a word is used as an object.

Sentence No. 8 has two forms of diagrams given in order

that the pupil may see clearly the double office of the word *what*. When understood, the first form is preferable.

ANALYSIS. 8: He is ashamed of what he has done.

This is a complex declarative sentence, consisting of a principal clause and a dependent clause. The subject of the principal clause is HE, the predicate verb is *is*, and the attribute is *ashamed*, modified by the adverbial phrase *of that* comprehended in the double relative *what*, which is equivalent to *that which; that* is the principal word in the phrase. The subject of the dependent clause is *he;* the predicate verb is *has done*, and the object is *which* comprehended in the double relative *what*.

PARSING: *What* is a double relative pronoun; as the object of the preposition *of* it is a pronoun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case; as the object of *has done* it is a relative pronoun, representing that or thing which, and is of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and in the objective case, being the object of *has done*.

In sentence 3, *Clara* is the subject, *said* is the predicate verb, and the clause *she would give the book to Charles*, is the object clause.

The pupil should have no difficulty in giving an oral analysis of the other sentences. The eight sentences should be put into diagram, analyzed, and each word parsed.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a personal pronoun? 2. What pronouns are in the first, second, and third persons? 3. What are the compound personal pronouns? 4. How is each one formed? 5. What is a relative pronoun? 6. What peculiarity is there in the relative *what?* 7. What are the compound relative pronouns? 8. What is an interrogative pronoun? 9. What are the interrogatives? 10. What kind of sentence does the use of a relative pronoun form?

Ans. It forms what is called a complex sentence.

LESSON XLVIII

PRONOUNS.—MODIFICATIONS AND DECLENSION

Pronouns have the same modifications as nouns; namely, Persons, Numbers, Genders, and Cases.

In the personal pronouns most of these properties are indicated by the words themselves. Thus *I* by its form denotes the *first person, singular number,* and *nominative case,* the gender being indicated by its use in the sentence. *We* denotes, by its form, the *first person, plural number,* and *nominative case;* and its gender is denoted by its use in the sentence.

Each of the other personal pronouns is indicated in the same manner.

EXAMPLES

1. I wrote answers to all the questions in *my* lesson, but father said, "My boy, *you* must study *your* lesson until *you* can tell all about *it.*"

2. *We* boys are very much interested in *our* grammar lessons.

In 1, the word *boy* indicates the gender of *I, my, you, your;* and lesson, the gender of *it. It,* however, is always of the neuter gender.

In 2, *the word* boys indicates the gender of *we* and *our.*

For the relative pronoun you should refer to the *antecedent* which it represents. Thus in the sentence, *The boy who studies will improve,* the properties of *who* are indicated by the antecedent word *boy* which it represents.

In the interrogative pronoun, the answer to the question indicates the properties of the pronoun; as, Who did this? (**Ans.**—John.) Here *John* indicates the person, number, and gender of *who.*

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

The personal pronouns are thus declined:

I of the first person.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. I,	*Nom.* we,
Poss. my or mine,	*Poss.* our, or ours,
Obj. me;	*Obj.* us.

Thou of the second person.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. thou,	*Nom.* ye, or you,
Poss. thy, or thine,	*Poss.* your, or yours,
Obj. thee;	*Obj.* you.

He of the third person.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. he,	*Nom.* they,
Poss. his,	*Poss.* their, or theirs,
Obj. him;	*Obj.* them.

She of the third person.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. she,	*Nom.* they,
Poss. her, or hers,	*Poss.* their, or theirs,
Obj. her;	*Obj.* them.

It of the third person.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. it,	*Nom.* they,
Poss. its,	*Poss.* their, or theirs,
Obj. it;	*Obj.* them.

The compound personal pronouns all want the possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and objective cases; as,

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. myself,	*Nom.* ourselves,
Poss. ———	*Poss.* ———
Obj. myself;	*Obj.* ourselves.

The relative and interrogative pronouns are thus declined:

WHO, applied only to persons.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
Nom.	who,	*Nom.*	who,
Poss.	whose,	*Poss.*	whose,
Obj.	whom;	*Obj.*	whom.

WHICH, applied to animals and things.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
Nom.	which,	*Nom.*	which,
Poss.	———	*Poss.*	———
Obj.	which;	*Obj.*	which.

WHAT, generally applied to things.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
Nom.	what,	*Nom.*	what,
Poss.	———	*Poss.*	———
Obj.	what;	*Obj.*	what.

THAT, applied to persons, animals, and things.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
Nom.	that,	*Nom.*	that,
Poss.	———	*Poss.*	———
Obj.	that;	*Obj.*	that.

The compound relative pronouns, whoever or whosoever, whichever or whichsoever, and whatever or whatsoever are declined in the same manner as the simple ones who, which, what.

WRITTEN EXERCISES

1. Write the nominative plural of the following pronouns: *I, thou, he, she, it, who, which, what, that.*

2. Write the declension of the following: *Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, whosoever.*

3. Write sentences each of which will contain one of the following: *Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, whose, himself, themselves.*

4. Write the objective singular and plural of all the simple pronouns.

5. Write sentences each of which will contain one of the following pronouns: *Him, them, me, myself, who, whom, which, what, that, whoever, whomsoever, whichever.*

QUESTIONS

1. What is declension? 2. How do you determine the gender of a personal pronoun? 3. How do you determine the gender of a relative pronoun? 4. Why is *myself* called a compound personal pronoun? 5. What kind of word is *himself?* Why? 6. Give a review talk of the personal pronouns; of the relative pronouns.

LESSON XLIX

COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

1. Prosperity gains many friends, but adversity tries them.
2. A boy who is diligent will succeed.
3. He was there when his father came.

In 1, there are two simple sentences connected by a conjunction; but when so connected, they are called clauses, and the sentence is compound.

In 2, there are two sentences connected by *who,* but *who* is also a part of a sentence which relates to the principal sentence; for this reason one is called the principal clause, and the other the dependent clause. The whole sentence is called complex, and the connective word *who* is called a relative pronoun.

In 3, *when* connects two clauses, and, because it also expresses time, it is called a conjunctive adverb; and the sentence is called complex.

A compound sentence is a sentence composed of two or more independent clauses; as, "Times change, and we change with them."

A complex sentence is a sentence composed of a principal clause and one or more dependent clauses; as, "The man whose conscience is pure needs fear no accusation."

A clause is a division of a compound or a complex sentence; as (compound sentence), "The way was long, and the wind was cold." (Complex sentence), "He who is intelligent will be intelligible."

A dependent clause is a clause used as one of the principal parts of a sentence, or as an adjunct to any word in it; as,

1. PRINCIPAL PART.—That *vice conduces to misery* is certain.

2. ADJUNCT.—The globe *on which we live* is called the earth.

A clause introduced by a relative pronoun is called a dependent clause, and is adjective in office; as, He *who studies* will learn.

A clause introduced by an adverb is a dependent clause used adverbially; as, "We sowed the seed *where the soil was moist and loamy.*"

Clauses may be connected by *conjunctions, relative pronouns,* and *conjunctive adverbs;* as,

1. BY A CONJUNCTION.—You may study your lessons, *or* you may write a composition.

2. BY A RELATIVE PRONOUN.—He *who* does wrong will suffer.

3. BY A CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB.—The work will be done *when* I have the time.

Where adjuncts are used to give additional meanings to the terms to which they are applied, they are sometimes called modifiers; as,

A *good* boy. An *honest* man. *The* fire burns *brightly.*

L. of C.

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

1. "We must conquer our passions, or our passions will conquer us."

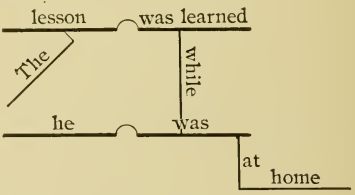
2. "Wealth may come to us, but wisdom must be sought."

3. He was faithful, and he was rewarded.

4. "Speak clearly, if you speak at all;
Carve every word before you let it fall."

5. The lesson was learned *while he was at home.*

This sentence has a dependent adverbial clause and may be put into diagram as follows:



NOTE.—*While* is an adverb relating to was in the dependent clause, and shows that the clause relates to was learned in the principal clause. It is called a conjunctive adverb.

6. "Whoever does a good deed is instantly ennobled."

7. "The lever which moves the world of mind is the printing-press."

8. What men he had were true.

9. Luther died where he was born.

10. If you are free from vice, you may expect a happy old age.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a compound sentence? a complex sentence? a simple sentence? 2. What is a clause? 3. What is a dependent clause? 4. What is an adverbial clause? 5. What is an adjective clause? 6. Of what is a complex sentence composed? 7. What are adjuncts often called?

LESSON L

DIFFERENT KINDS OF ADJUNCTS.—ADJUNCTS OF THE SUBJECT

1. A *truthful* person is believed.
2. A person *of truth* is believed.
3. A person *who tells the truth* is believed.
4. Your sister *Mary* was present.
5. Nero, the Roman *Emperor*, was very cruel.
6. It is very useful *to study grammar*.
7. It is not proper that *you should go*.

In 1, *truthful* is used as an adjunct of the subject.

In 2, *of truth* is a phrase used as an adjunct of the subject.

In 3, *who tells the truth* is a clause used as an adjunct of the subject.

In 4, *Mary* is used to explain which sister was present.

In 5, *Emperor* is used to explain who Nero was.

In 6, *to study grammar* is a phrase used to explain the meaning of the subject *it*.

In 7, *that you should go* is a clause used to explain the subject *it*.

All *words*, *phrases*, and *clauses* that relate to a noun or pronoun, or are explanatory of them, are adjective adjuncts; as in sentences 1 to 7.

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

1. Columbus, the discoverer of America, was carried in chains to Spain.
2. The poet Milton wrote "Paradise Lost."
3. Pope, the translator of Homer, was a great poet.
4. I myself was there.
5. Do not commit the same mistake the second time.
6. Washington, our national capital city, is situated on the Potomac.

7. Miss Louise Young, Mr. Chandler Young's eldest daughter, is at home this week.

8. Daniel Webster, the orator and statesman, was born in New Hampshire.

9. Henry's brother Charles is in college.

10. Liberty, a village on the Ontario and Western Railroad, is a noted summer resort.

11. I saw Mr. Jno. Reiner, the cabinet-maker, this morning.

An explanatory adjunct is a noun, pronoun, phrase, or clause used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun.

An explanatory term is usually set off by commas, as in sentences 6 and 7; but sometimes a single word is used without a comma when it is practically a part of the name, as in 4.

QUESTIONS

1. Of what may an adjective adjunct consist? 2. What is an explanatory word? phrase? clause?

LESSON LI

SUBJECT AND OBJECT CLAUSES

1. That vice conduces to misery is certain.

2. That idleness leads to ruin, and that industry insures success are certain truths.

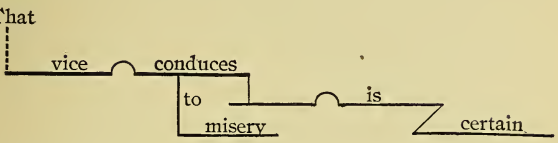
3. James says that his brother is not well.

4. The fool hath said in his heart, "There is no God."

In 1, *that* is an introductory word, and is considered a conjunction, because, in an equivalent sentence, *It is certain that vice conduces to misery*, *that* is a connective word.

In 3, *that* is considered a conjunction, because it implies that the clause which it connects to the principal clause

is used as an object in the same manner that a word is used.



The pupil may diagram the other sentences and give an oral analysis of each; also diagram, and give an oral analysis of each of the following sentences, and parse each word.

1. The neighbors do not believe that he will accept.
2. He said, "How can I ever forget your favors to me?"
3. He thought that the laws should be more vigorously enforced.
4. The people of all nations believe that the soul is immortal.
5. That vicious mistakes have been made is not doubted.
6. That success depends on industry is generally admitted.
7. That he is improving is certain.

LESSON LII

ADVERBIAL ADJUNCTS

1. The lesson was learned *promptly.*
2. The lesson was learned *in a very short time.*
3. "The wind bloweth *where it listeth.*"
4. The lesson was learned *at home, in the evening.*
5. He sat *in the shade of an old apple tree* and studied his lesson.

Put into diagram and give an oral analysis of the other sentences, then diagram and analyze the following sentences and parse each word.

1. I shall go home to-morrow morning.
2. James went home on the morning train.

3. "Around the fire, one wintry night,
 The farmer's rosy children sat."
4. "At evening, when the lamp is lit,
 Around the fire my parents sit."
5. "Little Robin Redbreast
 Sat upon a tree;
 Up went pussy cat,
 And down went he."
6. "Little rills make wider streamlets;
 Streamlets swell the river's flow;
 Rivers join the ocean billows,
 Onward, onward as they go."

LESSON LIII

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

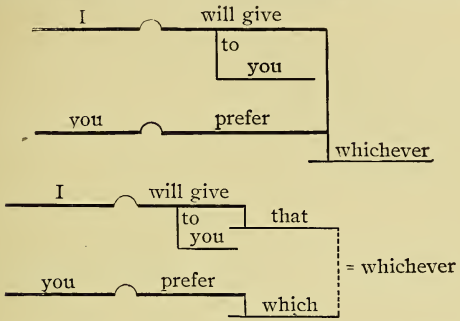
1. I will give you whichever you prefer.
2. I will give to you that which you prefer.
3. Whoever does wrong will suffer.
4. He who does wrong will suffer.

In 1, the compound relative pronoun *whichever* is equal to *that which; that* is used as the object in the principal clause, and *which* as the object in the dependent clause.

Oral Analysis: This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject of the principal clause is the pronoun *I*, the predicate verb is *will give*, and the object is the antecedent *that* contained in the double relative *whichever*. The adjunct of the predicate verb is the adverbial phrase *to you, you* being the principal word in the phrase, *to* being understood before *you*. The subject of the dependent clause is the pronoun *you*, the predicate verb is *prefer*, and the object is the relative part *which* contained in the double relative whichever.

Parsing: Whichever is a compound relative pronoun including both the antecedent and the relative. Whichever equals *that which*. The antecedent *that* is a pronoun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and in the objective case, object of *will give*. The rela-

tive part of whichever, *which*, is a relative pronoun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and in the objective case, object of *prefer*.



SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

1. Whoever told such a story must have been misinformed.
2. He must take whatever he likes best.
3. Whichever is right I will take.
4. Whomsoever you send I will entertain.
5. An honest man will do what is right.

WRITTEN REVIEW

Write in a connected manner what you have learned about pronouns. Tell about the classes of pronouns—what difficulties you had in studying them, how necessary it is to understand the meaning of words, and what a good mental drill the study of pronouns gives in the use of words.

LESSON LIV

VERBS.—CLASSES

1. Walk, walked, walking, walked.
2. Love, loved, loving, loved.
3. See, saw, seeing, seen.
4. Thrive, thrived or throve, thriving, thrived or thriven.
5. Can, could.

In 1, the verb *walk* expresses present time; and *walked*, past time, imperfect or preterit. *Walked* is formed from *walk* by adding *ed*. The two participles *walking* and *walked* are also formed from *walk* by adding *ing* and *ed* respectively.

In 2, *loved* is formed by adding *d* to love, and the participles are formed by adding *ing* and *d*.

All verbs which form the preterit by adding *d* or *ed*, and the participles by adding *ing*, *d*, or *ed*, are called REGULAR VERBS.

A regular verb is a verb which forms the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or ed; as, love, loved, loving, loved; talk, talked, talking, talked.

There are four parts to every verb from which all others are derived: the present, the preterit or past, the imperfect participle (always ending in *ing*), and the perfect participle. When these are given all other parts become known. For this reason they are called the principal parts.

In 3, the verb *see* denotes present time; *saw*, preterit or past time; *seeing* and *seen* are the participles. As *see* does not form the preterit and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed*, it is called an irregular verb.

An irregular verb is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or ed; as, see, saw, seeing, seen; ride, rode, riding, ridden.

In 4, the verb *thrive* forms the preterit and perfect participle in two ways, so as to be both regular and irregular, and is called a redundant verb.

A redundant verb is a verb which forms the preterit and the perfect participle in two or more ways, so as to be both regular and irregular; as, dream, dreamed or dreamt, dreaming, dreamed or dreamt.

In 5, *can* indicates present time, and *could* preterit or past; but there are no participles, and the verb *can* is called a DEFECTIVE VERB. *Beware* is used only in the present. *Must* is not varied in termination.

A defective verb is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few moods and tenses; as, shall, will, quoth.

OBSERVATIONS: Regular verbs form the preterit and perfect participle by adding *d* to final *e* and *ed* to all other terminations. The verb *hear, heard, hearing, heard,* adds *d* to *r* and is therefore irregular.

Verbs are divided, therefore, in respect to form, into four classes; namely, REGULAR, IRREGULAR, REDUNDANT, and DEFECTIVE.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write sentences, each containing one of the following regular verbs in each of the four respective parts: Work, walk, talk, call, pull, prepare, demand, dismiss.

EXAMPLES

1. These two boys work on the farm in the summer.
2. These two boys worked all day yesterday.
3. Those men, working in the glass factory, get good wages.
4. A young boy, worked beyond his strength, soon grows old.

5. A boy who is worked too hard while young is likely to suffer from ill health in old age.

Observations: The imperfect participle, or the participle ending in *ed*, may be used alone, as in 4, or in connection with a verb making a compound form of the verb; as in 5, under Examples.

QUESTIONS

1. Into how many classes are verbs divided in respect to form? 2. What is a regular verb? 3. What is an irregular verb? 4. What is a redundant verb? 5. What is a defective verb? 6. What are the four principal parts of a verb? 7. Which parts are often used alone as participles? 8. What is the difference between a verb and a participle? 9. What is meant by compound form of a verb?

In the following sentences tell which words are compound verbs and which are participles. Put each sentence into diagram. Tell the form of the verb in each case; parse each word.

1. The boy stood on the walk listening to the music.
2. The boys were running, jumping, and shouting in the yard.
3. Jane heard the rain falling on the roof.
4. Henry saw a bad boy stealing apples in the orchard.
5. A man can walk a mile in fifteen minutes.
6. Henry is studying arithmetic, grammar, and geography.
7. The old guide stood leaning his arm upon the fence.
8. The boys are studying their lessons very carefully.
9. The girls have prepared their written lessons with much care.
10. The school bell is now ringing.

LESSON LV

VERBS.—CLASSES AND SIGNIFICATION

1. James studies his lesson carefully.
2. Henry walks.
3. The boy was struck by a falling limb.
4. He is good. She sleeps.

In 1, *James* performs an action expressed by the verb *studies,* which terminates on the object *lesson.* The verb *studies* is here called an ACTIVE-TRANSITIVE VERB.

It is called *active* because it expresses the action performed by the subject *James,* and *transitive* because it signifies that the action passes over to the object *lesson.*

An active-transitive verb is a verb that expresses an action which has some person or thing for its object; as, "The man *built* a house." "Birds *sing* songs." "Bees *make* honey."

In 2, the verb *walks* is used to express an action of its subject *Henry,* but it has no object. For this reason it is called an INTRANSITIVE VERB.

An active-intransitive verb is a verb that expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object; as, "John *walks.*" "Trees *grow.*" "Fishes *swim.*"

In 3, the verb *was struck* denotes an action received by the subject *boy.* For this reason it is called a PASSIVE VERB.

The word *passive* means suffering or enduring or receiving the effect of an action; as, He *is assailed* by slander; the picture *is admired* by all; I *am taught;* she *is loved.*

A passive verb is a verb that represents its subject, or nominative, as being acted upon; as, "I *am compelled.*" "The house *was destroyed* by fire."

Both active and passive verbs express action; the *active* denoting action as performed by the subject; the *passive* denoting action received by the subject. The object of the action of the active-transitive verb becomes the subject of the passive verb.

An active-transitive verb may be changed into a passive verb, and sometimes it is necessary to make the change to express the meaning more clearly.

EXAMPLES

Active Verbs.	Passive Verbs.
Cain slew Abel.	Abel was slain by Cain.
Henry wrote a letter.	The letter was written by Henry.
The boy caught a squirrel.	The squirrel was caught by the boy.

Note.—Active-transitive and passive verbs are therefore very closely related; for this reason some grammarians have called both transitive, one in the active voice and the other in the passive voice.

But a verb may be active without being transitive; as, The boy studies. This word *studies* has four parts, *study, studied, studying, studied.* By uniting *was* with the fourth form *studied,* we have *was studied;* and we may say, The lesson *was studied* by the boy. The word study, then, is not a transitive verb except by use; consequently *was studied* is not a transitive verb, but simply a passive verb.

In 4, *is,* in the sentence *He is good,* is used simply to express existence or being; while in the sentence *She sleeps, sleeps* expresses a state of being, or condition, of the person. If I say, *The tree stands on the hill, stands* is used simply to express a condition or state of being of the tree, because there is no action on the part of the tree; but if I say, *The boy stands on the hill, stands* expresses an action as performed by the boy; he may *stand, sit,* or *run,* as he feels inclined; consequently *stand* is, in this case, an active-intransitive verb. The learner must in every case consider the meaning and use of a word and class it accordingly.

A neuter verb is a verb that expresses neither action nor passion, but simply being or state of being; as, "Thou *art*." "He *sleeps*." "The book *lies* on the table."

It is thus seen that verbs are divided, in respect to signification, into four classes: Active-transitive, active-intransitive, passive, and neuter.

QUESTIONS

1. How are verbs divided in respect to form? 2. How are verbs divided in respect to signification or meaning? 3. What is an active-transitive verb? 4. What is an active-intransitive verb? 5. What is a passive verb? 6. What is a neuter verb? 7. State the difference between an active-transitive verb and a passive verb.

Express the following sentences so that the verbs will have the passive form:

1. Charles caught a rabbit.
2. Susan studied her lesson carefully.
3. James caught a fine string of trout.
4. Henry recited his lesson to his teacher.
5. Mary told the difference between a passive and a neuter verb.
6. W. F. Edmonds has built a new house.
7. The president called the meeting to order.

LESSON LVI

EXERCISE

Put the following sentences into diagram, give an oral analysis of each, tell the classes of verbs, and parse each word:

1. The boat moves rapidly down the river.
2. The man stood motionless.
3. The book lay on the desk.
4. The river is frozen over.

5. The boy was punished for his vicious actions.
6. Lucy studies her lessons at home, at night.
7. The wind blew and the rain descended in torrents.
8. The wily old fox was finally caught in the trap which he had so long and so skillfully evaded.
9. The express train passed the station at the rate of fifty miles an hour.
10. Henry, have you learned your lesson?

Construct sentences each of which will contain one of the following:

Have, was elected, had prepared, did go, has written, was burned, have been preserved, was communicated, erased, distinguished, lived, wrote, compared, disappeared, disappointed, were compelled.

Write three sentences with a regular verb in each.
Write three sentences with a neuter verb in each.
Write three sentences with an intransitive verb in each.
Write three sentences with a passive verb in each.
Write three sentences with a defective verb in each.

LESSON LVII

VERBS.—MODIFICATIONS

MOODS

Verbs in their various forms are used to express the conditions and actions of persons, the conditions of things, and the effect of the passions upon the mind. These various modifications of the verb are called MOODS.

Moods are different forms of the verb, each of which expresses the being, action, or passion, in some particular manner.

1. To be. To read. To feel sad.
2. I am. I read. I dislike the boy. Do you know?
3. I can go. I may go. I might go. I must go.

4. If I see him, I shall tell him. If he be sick, I shall visit him. If it were not so, I would have told you.

5. Bring me a book. Be comforted. James, do be careful. Henry, go with him.

In 1, *be*, in the phrase *to be*, denotes existence without reference to any subject. In the phrase *to read*, *read* denotes action, but there is no subject. In the phrase *to feel sad*, *feel* denotes the effect of some passion upon the mind by the attribute *sad*. Verbs used in this manner are said to be in the INFINITIVE MOOD. *Infinitive* means unlimited. The verbs in all the other moods are called finite verbs.

The infinitive mood is that form of the verb which expresses the being, action, or passion in an unlimited manner, and without person or number; as, "To be honest is to be just." "I intend to write." "He desires to be happy."

In the sentences in 2, *am* denotes existence, *read* denotes action, *dislike* denotes a condition of the feelings, and *do know* is used with its subject to ask a question. With each verb there is a subject, and the verbs so used are said to be in the INDICATIVE MOOD.

The indicative mood is that form of the verb which simply indicates or declares a thing, or asks a question; as, "I *write*." "You *know*." "*Do* you *know*?"

In the sentences in 3, *can go* denotes power to go, *may go* denotes liberty to go, *might go* denotes possibility of going, and *should go* denotes necessity for going. Each verb has a subject, and such verbs are said to be in the POTENTIAL MOOD.

The potential mood is that form of the verb which expresses the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity of the

being, action, or passion; as, "I *can read.*" "You *may go.*" "They *might go.*" "We *must go.*"

In the subordinate clauses in 4, *see* expresses the action of the subject as conditional, *be* expresses doubt as to the condition of the subject, and *were* expresses a condition dependent upon the action expressed in the principal clause. Such verbs are said to be in the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The subjunctive mood is that form of the verb which represents the being, action, or passion as conditional, doubtful, contingent; as, "If I *were* you I *would go* to school."

In the sentences in 5, *Bring* expresses a command, *Be comforted* expresses an exhortation, *do be* expresses an entreaty, and *go* expresses permission. All such verbs are said to be in the IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The imperative mood is that form of the verb used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, "Depart thou." "Be comforted." "Go in peace."

QUESTIONS

1. What are moods? 2. What is meant by the actions of persons and the condition of things? 3. What is meant by the effect of the passions upon the mind? 4. What is meant by the modifications of a verb? 5. In the phrase *to be*, what does *be* denote? 6. In the phrase *to feel sad*, what does *feel* denote? (*Answer. Feel* here denotes a condition of the mind caused by grief and expressed by the attribute *sad.*) 7. What is the infinitive mood? 8. Explain the differences in meaning of the verbs in the sentences I am. I read. I dislike the boy. Do you know? 9. Explain the differences in meaning of the verbs in the sentences, I can go. I might go. I may go. I should go. 10. Explain the use of *see* in the sentences, If

I see him, I shall tell him. 11. Explain the use of *bring* in the sentence, *Bring me a book.*

Tell the mood of each verb in the following sentences:

1. If I were you I would study this lesson carefully.
2. Does the sun shine?
3. Charles, bring me that book.
4. Henry, you may go now.
5. If he has money, he keeps it.
6. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.
7. Men would be happy if they were good.
8. Men would not worship the sun if they knew God.
9. We should have friends if we were friendly.
10. Try to do right under all circumstances.
11. Strive to learn your lesson thoroughly.
12. "To err is human; to forgive, divine."
13. "Sweet was the sound when oft at evening's close
 Up yonder hill the village murmur rose."—Goldsmith.

LESSON LVIII

USES OF THE INFINITIVE MOOD

A verb in the infinitive mood differs so much in its use from a finite verb, that it seems necessary here to make some special explanation of its various uses.

1. He had permission *to go home.* An infinitive adjective phrase modifying permission.

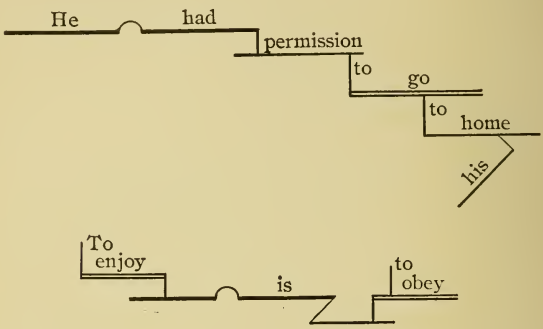
2. I am glad *to see you.* An infinitive adverbial phrase modifying glad.

3. I went *to see my friend.* An infinitive adverbial phrase modifying went.

4. *To enjoy* is *to obey.* *To enjoy* is the subject of the verb *is,* and *to obey* is the attribute.

5. I wish *Mary to study grammar.* *Mary to study grammar* is an object infinitive clause, Mary being the object of *wish* and the subject of the infinitive *to study.*

In these examples, it will be seen that *to* is a preposition before the infinitives in 1, 2, and 3; that in 4, it is used



with the infinitive as a subject, and also as an attribute. To enjoy might be called a verbal noun; but in many instances it performs the office of a transitive verb also; as, in the sentence *To enjoy freedom of speech* is one of the privileges of an American citizen. Here *to enjoy* is, with the phrase of which it forms a part, the subject of *is*, also a transitive verb in the infinitive mood, having *speech* for its object. The *to* in 4 is used with its object, *enjoy*, as the subject of *is;* and *to obey* as the attribute. In 5, *I wish Mary to study grammar* is equivalent to *I wish that Mary would study grammar.* Mary is the object of wish and the subject of the infinitive *to study.*

In this sentence there is, as may be found in many other cases, some difference between a general analysis of a sentence and the ultimate analysis or parsing of words. In general analysis we call *Mary to study grammar* an object infinitive clause, while in parsing the words, we say that

Mary is the object of *wish* and also the subject of the infinitive *to study*.

This is so in this case, because *I wish Mary to study grammar* is a sort of Latinized English form of a sentence,—an idiomatic sentence. *Infinitive*, in general, means *unlimited*, or without a subject; but in 5, the infinitive has an exceptional use.

"I wish that Mary would study grammar," is the true English form, and is preferable.

The infinitive differs very much in use from a participle. Example: I saw Mary writing a letter. This implies that I looked at Mary a moment and saw her writing a letter; but in the sentence I saw Mary write a letter, I looked at Mary from the time she began to write the letter until she finished it.

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

1. James went to the depot to meet a friend coming from the city.
2. Alonzo went into the woods to gather chestnuts.
3. It is a delightful day to go into the woods.
4. James went to see the circus.
5. Millie rode out into the country to see her brother on the farm.
6. It is now time to go to school.
7. Ethel intends to study bookkeeping next term.
8. Henry has learned to play on the piano.
9. This boy is striving to be first in his class.
10. To see is to believe.

LESSON LIX

TENSES

1. I see the boy before me.
2. I saw the boy yesterday.
3. I have seen the boy to-day.
4. I had seen the boy when I met you.
5. I shall see the boy soon.
6. I shall have seen the boy by to-morrow noon.

Tenses are those modifications of the verb which distinguish time.

In 1, *see* is used to express present time. All verbs used to express present time are said to be in the present tense.

The present tense is that which expresses what now exists or is taking place; as, "I hear a noise; somebody is coming."

In 2, *saw* denotes past time, and any verb used to express past time is generally said to be in the imperfect tense.

The imperfect tense is that which generally expresses what took place or was occurring in time fully past; as, "He saw the boy on the street." "He was walking out."

In 3, have seen denotes time past, but also implies a portion of time not yet fully past; that is, a portion of the period of time in which I saw him is past, but a past yet remains.

The perfect tense is that which expresses what has taken place within some period of time not yet fully past; as, "I have seen the boy to-day."

Have is the sign of the perfect tense.

In 4, had seen denotes what had taken place in some

past time mentioned. We may say, Charles had a book in his hand when I met him on the walk.

The preperfect tense is that which expresses what had taken place at some past time mentioned; as, "I had seen him when I met you." "We had started for home before you came." Had is the sign of the preperfect tense.

In 5, *shall see* denotes time in the future. *Shall* is called the auxiliary verb and denotes future time.

The first-future tense is that which expresses what will take place hereafter; as, "I shall see him again." "We shall go in the morning."

In 6, *shall have seen* is used to denote an event at a future time mentioned. *Seen* is a form of the verb *see,* and *shall have* is called the auxiliary verb.

The second-future tense is that which expresses what will take place at some future time mentioned; as, "I shall have seen him by to-morrow noon."

Write the tense form of each of the verbs in the sentences in the preceding lesson.

QUESTIONS

1. What are tenses? 2. What is the present tense? the imperfect tense? the perfect tense? the preperfect tense? the first-future tense? the second-future tense? 3. Give examples of each.

Write the following words in sentences that will illustrate the use of the six tenses:

Know, write, play, talk, walk, call.

Examples: I am sitting by the fire. I sat by the fire. I have been sitting by the fire. I had been sitting by the fire when you came. I shall sit by the fire. I shall have sat by the fire a week to-morrow if I remain here.

LESSON LX

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

You have learned that the modifications of a verb are *moods, tenses, persons,* and *numbers.* The giving of these modifications in a systematic order is called conjugation.

The conjugation of a verb is a regular arrangement of its moods, tenses, persons, and numbers.

There are four principal parts in the conjugation of every verb that is both simple and complete; namely, the *present,* the *preterit,* the *imperfect participle,* and the *perfect participle;* as,

Present.	Preterit.	Imperfect Participle.	Perfect Participle.
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

Preterit means the same as *imperfect* or *past tense.*

A verb which wants any of these parts is called a *defective verb;* as,

Present.	Preterit.	Imperfect Participle.	Perfect Participle.
Can.	Could.		

Sometimes a short verb is prefixed to one of the principal parts of a verb, making it compound in form. Such a verb thus prefixed is called an AUXILIARY VERB; as, He *did* go. I *have* loved.

An auxiliary verb is a short verb prefixed to one of the principle parts of another verb, to express some particular *mode* and *time* of the *being, action,* or *passion.*

The auxiliaries are *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can,* and *must* with their variations.

Obs. Some of these, especially *do, be,* and *have,* are also used as principal verbs; as, I *did* this work with care. *Be* kind to your sister. I *have* an orange.

Diagram the following sentences, and tell which verbs are simple, and which are compound; also tell which are auxiliaries.

1. Always do your work in the best manner.
2. Be honorable in your dealings with others.
3. I have a pencil and a pen.
4. I shall go home to-morrow.
5. James will be required to stay at home.
6. I saw Henry writing a letter.
7. I saw Henry write a letter.
8. He may go home at noon to-day.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the conjugation of a verb? 2. What are the principal parts of a verb? 3. What is a defective verb? 4. What is an auxiliary verb?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write a sentence which will contain an auxiliary verb. 2. Write a sentence which will contain a defective verb. 3. Write a sentence which will contain a compound transitive verb. 4. Write a sentence which will contain a passive verb. 5. Write a general review of this lesson.

LESSON LXI

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB LOVE

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present.	Preterit or Past.	Imp. Participle.	Perfect Participle.
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To love.
Perfect Tense. To have loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1*st per.* I love,	1*st per.* We love,
2*d per.* Thou lovest,	2*d per.* You love,
3*d per.* He loves;	3*d per.* They love.

This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *do* to the verb:

Singular.	Plural.
1. I do love,	1. We do love,
2. Thou dost love,	2. You do love,
3. He does love;	3. They do love.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

This tense, in its simplest form, is the preterit. Preterit, imperfect, and past all denote time past. *D* or *ed* added to the simple form of the verb forms the preterit.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I loved,	1. We loved,
2. Thou lovedst,	2. You loved,
3. He loved;	3. They loved.

This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary *did* to the present:

Singular.	Plural.
1. I did love,	1. We did love,
2. Thou didst love,	2. You did love,
3. He did love;	3. They did love.

PERFECT TENSE.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *have* to the perfect participle.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have loved,	1. We have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,	2. You have loved,
3. He has loved;	3. They have loved.

PREPERFECT TENSE.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *had* to the perfect participle.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had loved,	1. We had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,	2. You had loved,
3. He had loved;	3. They had loved.

FIRST-FUTURE TENSE.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *shall* or *will* to the present,

1. Simply to express a future action or event:

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall love,	1. We shall love,
2. Thou wilt love,	2. You will love,
3. He will love;	3. They will love.

2. To express a promise, volition, command, or threat:

Singular.	Plural.
1. I will love,	1. We will love,
2. Thou shalt love,	2. You shall love
3. He shall love;	3. He shall love.

A promise is an engagement by one person to another.

A volition is the exercise of the will.

A command is an authoritative order requiring obedience.

A threat is the expression of an intention to inflict evil or injury to another.—Webster Dict.

SECOND-FUTURE TENSE.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *shall have* or *will have* to the perfect participle.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have loved,	1. We shall have loved,
2. Thou wilt have loved,	2. You will have loved,
3. He will have loved;	3. They will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *may, can,* or *must* to the radical verb.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may love,	1. We may love,
2. Thou mayst love,	2. You may love,
3. He may love;	3. They may love.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary *might, could, would,* or *should* to the radical verb.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might love,	1. We might love,
2. Thou mightst love,	2. You might love,
3. He might love;	3. They might love.

PERFECT TENSE.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *may have, can have,* or *must have* to the perfect participle.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have loved,	1. We may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,	2. You may have loved,
3. He may have loved;	3. They may have loved.

PREPERFECT TENSE. (PRE means before.)

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries *might have, could have, would have,* or *should have* to the perfect participle.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I might have loved,	1. We might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,	2. You might have loved,
3. He might have loved;	3. They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I love,	1. If we love,
2. If thou love,	2. If you love,
3. If he love;	3. If they love.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I loved,	1. If we loved,
2. If thou loved,	2. If you loved,
3. If he loved;	3. If they loved.

LESSON LXII

Observations in reference to the distinctions in the use of words; also of tense forms.

1. I can go in the morning. (I am able to go, or I am so situated that I can leave.)

2. I may go in the morning. (There is a possibility of my going.)

3. Mother says that I may go with you. (Denotes permission to go.)

4. Please, may I go now? (A request.)

5. Please, can I go now? (You ask if you are able to go, but you do not ask permission.)

6. May you live happily together. (A wish is expressed.)

7. I suppose I might go in the morning. (The time expressed by *might go* is future.)

8. I would go if I thought I could be of service to you. (Future time is expressed.)

9. I think that I should go in the morning. (Should go expresses future time.)

10. James did go this morning. (Denotes time past.)

11. James went away before I left home. (Past time preceding a past time mentioned.)

12. I saw Henry before he went to Europe. (Previous time in past similarly expressed.)

13. I had seen Henry when I met you, before he went to Europe. (Expresses time past previous to past time mentioned.)

Observe the difference in meaning of *may* and *can* in sentences from 1 to 5 inclusive.

Observe also the difference in time expressed by the forms of the imperfect tense in both the indicative and potential moods from 1 to 13. There is a clear distinction in the meaning of the words however.

NOTE.—From these examples it is clear that the tenses do not express time with equal precision. The imperfect tense has reference in the different forms of expression under the different moods, to time future as well as to time past. Yet these various forms are classed under the head *imperfect tense*. It will be seen that the word *imperfect* has a broader meaning than the word *past*, consequently *imperfect tense* is preferable to *past tense*.

The only way for you to make these distinctions in reference to time, and to class these forms properly under the different tenses, is to learn the signs of the tenses under the different moods.

When you have learned the conjugation of one verb under the various moods, and the signs of the tenses, then you can readily determine the different tense-forms for all other verbs of the same class.

QUESTIONS

1. In 1, what does *can go* signify? 2. What does *may go* signify in 2? in 3? in 4? 3. What does *can go* mean in 5? 4. What does *may live* express in 6? what time is implied? 5. What time is expressed by *might go* in 7? 6. What time is expressed by *would go* in 8? 7. What time is expressed by *think*, and what by *should go* in 9?

LESSON LXIII

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular. 2. Love [thou] or Do thou love.
Plural. 2. Love [ye or you] or Do you love.

PARTICIPLES

1. Imperfect, Loving.
2. Perfect, Loved.
3. Preperfect, Having loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE FIRST EXAMPLE

FIRST PERSON, SINGULAR

INDICATIVE. I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love, I shall have loved. POTENTIAL. I may love, I might love, I may have loved, I might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If I love, If I loved.

SECOND PERSON, SINGULAR

INDICATIVE. Thou lovest, Thou lovedst, Thou hast loved, Thou hadst loved, Thou wilt love, Thou wilt have loved. POTENTIAL. Thou mayst love, Thou mightst love, Thou mayst have loved, Thou mightst have loved. SUBJUNC-

TIVE. If thou love, If thou loved. IMPERATIVE. Love thou or Do thou love.

THIRD PERSON, SINGULAR

INDICATIVE. He loves, He loved, He has loved, He had loved, He will love, He will have loved. POTENTIAL. He may love, He might love, He may have loved, He might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If he love, If he loved.

FIRST PERSON, PLURAL

INDICATIVE. We love, We loved, We have loved, We had loved, We shall love, We shall have loved. POTENTIAL. We may love, We might love, We may have loved, We might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If we love, If we loved.

SECOND PERSON, PLURAL

INDICATIVE. You love, You loved, You have loved, You had loved, You will love, You will have loved. POTENTIAL. You may love, You might love, You may have loved, You might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If you love, If you loved. IMPERATIVE. Love [ye or you] or Do you love.

THIRD PERSON, PLURAL

INDICATIVE. They love, They loved, They have loved, They had loved, They will love, They will have loved. POTENTIAL. They may love, They might love, They may have loved, They might have loved. SUBJUNCTIVE. If they love, If they loved.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the conjugation of a verb? 2. What are the four principal parts of a verb? 3. What two parts of the verb are sometimes participles? 4. What is the sign of the perfect tense? 5. What is the sign of the preperfect tense? 6. What is the sign of the first-future tense to express a

future event? To express a promise, a volition, a command, or a threat? 7. What is the sign of the second-future tense? 8. What are the signs of the present tense, potential mood? Of the imperfect or past tense? Of the perfect tense? Of the preperfect tense? 9. How many tenses are there in the subjunctive mood? 10. What tense is used in the imperative mood? 11. What are the participles of the verb love?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write sentences to illustrate the use of the verb in each of the tenses in the indicative mood. 2. Write sentences to illustrate each tense in the potential mood. 3. Write sentences to illustrate each tense in the subjunctive mood. 4. Write sentences to illustrate the tense in the imperative mood. 5. Write sentences to illustrate the use of the participles of the verb *love*.

LESSON LXIV

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB SEE

PRINCIPAL PARTS

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imp. Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
See.	Saw.	Seeing.	Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD

Present Tense. To see.
Perfect Tense. To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I see,	1. We see,
2. Thou seest,	2. You see,
3. He sees;	3. They see.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I saw,	1. We saw,
2. Thou sawest,	2. You saw,
3. He saw;	3. They saw.

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have seen,	1. We have seen,
2. Thou hast seen,	2. You have seen,
3. He has seen;	3. They have seen.

PREPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had seen,	1. We had seen,
2. Thou hadst seen,	2. You had seen,
3. He had seen;	3. They had seen.

FIRST-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall see,	1. We shall see,
2. Thou wilt see,	2. You will see,
3. He will see;	3. They will see.

SECOND-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have seen,	1. We shall have seen,
2. Thou wilt have seen,	2. You will have seen,
3. He will have seen;	3. They will have seen.

POTENTIAL MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may see,	1. We may see,
2. Thou mayst see,	2. You may see,
3. He may see;	3. They may see.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might see,	1. We might see,
2. Thou mightst see,	2. You might see,
3. He might see;	3. They might see.

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have seen,	1. We may have seen,
2. Thou mayst have seen,	2. You may have seen,
3. He may have seen;	3. They may have seen.

PREPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might have seen,	1. We might have seen,
2. Thou mightst have seen,	2. You might have seen,
3. He might have seen;	3. They might have seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I see,	1. If we see,
2. If thou see,	2. If you see,
3. If he see;	3. If they see.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I saw,	1. If we saw,
2. If thou saw,	2. If you saw,
3. If he saw;	3. If they saw.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular. 2. See [thou] or Do thou see.
Plural. 2. See [ye or you] or Do you see.

PARTICIPLES

The Imperfect.	The Perfect.	The Preperfect.
Seeing.	Seen.	Having seen.

QUESTIONS

1. Why is *see* an irregular verb? 2. Tell the principal parts. 3. Give the participles. 4. What is the progressive form of the verb *see?* 5. What is the passive form?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write sentences to illustrate each tense in each mood. 2. Write a synopsis of the verb *see*.

LESSON LXV

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB BE

PRINCIPAL PARTS

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imp. Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Be.	Was.	Being.	Been.

INFINITIVE MOOD

Present Tense. To be. *Perfect Tense.* To have been.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am,	1. We are,
2. Thou art,	2. You are,
3. He is;	3. They are.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was,	1. We were,
2. Thou wast,*	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

* Wert is sometimes used in poetry for wast; as, "Vainly wert thou wed."—*Byron.*

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. Thou hast been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been;	3. They have been.

PREPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. Thou hadst been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been;	3. They had been.

FIRST-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall be,	1. We shall be,
2. Thou wilt be,	2. You will be,
3. He will be;	3. They will be.

SECOND-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have been,	1. We shall have been,
2. Thou wilt have been,	2. You will have been,
3. He will have been;	3. They will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may be,	1. We may be,
2. Thou mayst be,	2. You may be,
3. He may be;	3. They may be.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might be,	1. We might be,
2. Thou mightst be,	2. You might be,
3. He might be;	3. They might be.

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have been,	1. We may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,	2. You may have been,
3. He may have been;	3. They may have been.

PREPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might have been,	1. We might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,	2. You might have been,
3. He might have been;	3. They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I be,	1. If we be,
2. If thou be,	2. If you be,
3. If he be;	3. If they be.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If thou wert or were,	2. If you were,
3. If he were;	3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular. 2. Be [thou] or Do thou be.
Plural. 2. Be [ye or you] or Do you be.

Participles.

The Imperfect.	The Perfect.	The Preperfect.
Being.	Been.	Having been.

COMPOUND FORM, ACTIVE OR NEUTER.

Active and *neuter* verbs may also be conjugated by adding the Imperfect Participle to the auxiliary verb *be*, through all its changes; as, I *am writing;* He *is sitting.*

This compound form of conjugation denotes a *continuance* of the action or state of being, and is, on many occasions, preferable to the simple form of the verb.

Write a synopsis of the verb *be* in all the moods and tenses.

LESSON LXVI

COMPOUND FORM OF THE VERB READ

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE SIMPLE VERB

The Present.	The Preterit.	The Imp. Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Read.	Read.	Reading.	Read.

INFINITIVE MOOD

Present Tense. To be reading.
Perfect Tense. To have been reading.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am reading,	1. We are reading,
2. Thou art reading,	2. You are reading,
3. He is reading;	3. They are reading.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was reading,	1. We were reading,
2. Thou wast reading,	2. You were reading,
3. He was reading;	3. They were reading.

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have been reading,	1. We have been reading,
2. Thou hast been reading,	2. You have been reading,
3. He has been reading;	3. They have been reading.

PREPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been reading,	1. We had been reading,
2. Thou hadst been reading,	2. You had been reading,
3. He had been reading;	3. They had been reading.

FIRST-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall be reading,	1. We shall be reading,
2. Thou wilt be reading,	2. You will be reading,
3. He will be reading;	3. They will be reading.

SECOND-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have been reading,	1. We shall have been reading,
2. Thou wilt have been reading,	2. You will have been reading,
3. He will have been reading;	3. They will have been reading.

POTENTIAL MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may be reading,	1. We may be reading,
2. Thou mayst be reading,	2. You may be reading,
3. He may be reading;	3. They may be reading.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might be reading,	1. We might be reading,
2. Thou mightst be reading,	2. You might be reading,
3. He might be reading;	3. They might be reading.

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have been reading,	1. We may have been reading,
2. Thou mayst have been reading,	2. You may have been reading,
3. He may have been reading;	3. They may have been reading.

PREFERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might have been reading,	1. We might have been reading,
2. Thou mightst have been reading,	2. You might have been reading,
3. He might have been reading;	3. They might have been reading.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I be reading,	1. If we be reading,
2. If thou be reading,	2. If you be reading,
3. If he be reading;	3. If they be reading.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I were reading,	1. If we were reading,
2. If thou wert reading,	2. If you were reading,
3. If he were reading;	3. If they were reading.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular. 2. Be [thou] reading, or Do thou be reading.
Plural. 2. Be [ye or you] reading, or Do you be reading.

PARTICIPLES

The Imperfect.	The Perfect.	The Preperfect.
Being reading.	———	Having been reading.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the compound form of the verb? 2. What are the infinitive forms? 3. Is the progressive form always compound? Why? 4. Is it necessary to use these different forms sometimes in writing?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write a sentence in the indicative mood, first person, singular. 2. Write four sentences representing the four tenses in the potential mood. 3. Write two sentences in the imperative mood.

LESSON LXVII

FORM OF PASSIVE VERBS

The perfect participle of an *active verb* and the auxiliary verb *be* form the passive verb through all its changes. Sometimes the imperfect participle is used in a passive sense in the compound form; as, "The goods *are selling*;" "The ships *are building*;" and the perfect participle may also have a neuter signification; as, "I am come;" "He is risen;" "They are fallen." The former are passive, and the latter neuter, verbs.

CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VERB BE LOVED

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE ACTIVE VERB

THE PRESENT.	THE PRETERIT.	THE IMP. PARTICIPLE.	THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Love.	Loved.	Loving.	Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD

Present Tense. To be loved.
Perfect Tense. To have been loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I am loved,	1. We are loved,
2. Thou art loved,	2. You are loved,
3. He is loved;	3. They are loved.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was loved,	1. We were loved,
2. Thou wast loved,	2. You were loved,
3. He was loved;	3. They were loved.

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have been loved,	1. We have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,	2. You have been loved,
3. He has been loved;	3. They have been loved.

PREPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been loved,	1. We had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,	2. You had been loved,
3. He had been loved;	3. They had been loved.

FIRST-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall be loved,	1. We shall be loved,
2. Thou wilt be loved,	2. You will be loved,
3. He will be loved;	3. They will be loved.

SECOND-FUTURE TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have been loved,	1. We shall have been loved,
2. Thou wilt have been loved,	2. You will have been loved,
3. He will have been loved;	3. They will have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may be loved,	1. We may be loved,
2. Thou mayst be loved,	2. You may be loved,
3. He may be loved;	3. They may be loved.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might be loved,	1. We might be loved,
2. Thou mightst be loved,	2. You might be loved,
3. He might be loved;	3. They might be loved.

PERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have been loved,	1. We may have been loved,
2. Thou mayst have been loved,	2. You may have been loved,
3. He may have been loved;	3. They may have been loved.

PREPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might have been loved,	1. We might have been loved,
2. Thou mightst have been loved,	2. You might have been loved,
3. He might have been loved;	3. They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I be loved,	1. If we be loved,
2. If thou be loved,	2. If you be loved,
3. If he be loved;	3. If they be loved.

IMPERFECT TENSE

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I were loved,	1. If we were loved,
2. If thou wert loved,	2. If you were loved,
3. If he were loved;	3. If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

Singular. 2. Be [thou] loved, or Do thou be loved.
Plural. 2. Be [ye or you] loved, or Do you be loved.

PARTICIPLES

The Imperfect.	The Perfect.	The Preperfect.
Being loved.	Loved.	Having been loved.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Write sentences to illustrate the use of each tense in each mood.
2. Write sentences to illustrate the use of the three participles.
3. Tell how the passive verb differs from the active verb.
4. Tell how the passive verb differs from the neuter verb.

LESSON LXVIII

FORM OF NEGATION

A verb is conjugated negatively by placing the adverb *not* after it, or after the first auxiliary; but the infinitive and the participles take the negative first.

Infinitive. Not to love, Not to have loved. Indicative. I love not, or I do not love, I loved not, or I did not love, I have not loved, I had not loved, I shall not love, I shall not have loved. Potential. I may, can, or must not love; I might, could, would, or should not love; I may, can, or must not have loved; I might, could, would, or should not have loved. Subjunctive. If I love not, If I loved not. Participles. Not loving, Not having loved.

FORM OF QUESTION

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative after it, or after the first auxiliary:

INDICATIVE. Do I love? Did I love? Have I loved? Had I loved? Shall I love? Shall I have loved? POTENTIAL. May, can, or must I love? Might, could, would, or should I love? May, can, or must I have loved? Might, could, would, or should I have loved?

FORM OF QUESTION WITH NEGATION

A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* and *negatively*, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative and the adverb *not* after the verb, or after the first auxiliary:

INDICATIVE. Do I not love? Did I not love? Have I not loved? Had I not loved? Shall I not love? Shall I not have loved? POTENTIAL. May, can, or must I not love? Might, could, would, or should I not love? May, can, or must I not have loved? Might, could, would, or should I not have loved?

QUESTIONS

1. What does *negatively* mean? 2. Where is the adverb *not* placed in the form of negation? 3. Where is the nominative placed when a question is asked? 4. Where are the nominative and the adverb *not* placed when the sentence has the form of question with negation? 5. Give sentences to illustrate these different forms.

LESSON LXIX

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

The irregular verbs have four forms each; namely, the present, the preterit, the imperfect participle, and the perfect participle. The *preterit*, the *imperfect tense*, and the *past tense* are nearly alike in meaning, the *imperfect*

being often used to express future time as in the potential and subjunctive moods. Usually the imperfect and the perfect participle are compounded with the verb *be* in its various forms to form the progressive and the passive verbs. When used separately, they are participles. You learned the various forms of these verbs and participles in the conjugation of the verbs. By observing those forms you will be enabled to write, correctly, sentences to represent the various uses of the four forms of the irregular verbs.

OBSERVE THE FOLLOWING FORMS USED IN SENTENCES:

SING.—1. The bird *sings* sweetly. 2. The bird *sang* its evening song and then flew away into the woods. 3. The bird *is singing* its morning songs. 4. The bird's morning song *was sung* before you were up. 5. I heard the bird *singing* its morning song. 6. The songs *sung* by the bird last evening were delightful. 7. The bird *sang* its morning song before you were awake.

LAY (to place).—1. *Lay* the book on the table. 2. The boy *laid* the book on the table. 3. I saw the boy *laying* the book on the table. 4. The book *was laid* on the table. 5. That book just *laid* on the table is a history of the United States.

LIE (to rest).—1. The boy *lies* on the sofa. 2. The boy *lay* on the sofa. 3. The boy *is lying* on the sofa. 4. The boy *had lain* on the sofa for an hour when you saw him.

SIT.—1. He *sits* by the fire studying his lesson. 2. He *sat* by the fire when you came in. 3. He *is sitting* by the fire and thinking about his lesson.

BE, IS, AM, ARE.—1. If he *be* sick I will visit him (subjunctive form). 2. If he *is* sick he does not complain. 3. I *am* here. 4. We *are* ready. 5. I *being* young, they deceived me. 6. He *has been* here several times.

In the same manner write sentences to illustrate the use of each of the irregular verbs.

NOTE TO TEACHER.—If the pupils are required to write sentences to illustrate the use of each of the irregular verbs, and each lesson is talked about, and reasons given for the various forms, the exercises will do much to correct many of the incorrect forms of expressions used by pupils.

Let the pupils take ten words for a lesson; or, if the class be somewhat advanced, twenty words might be given for a lesson. Such lessons tax the ingenuity of the pupils—cause them to think carefully, and to reason from the forms given in the conjugation of the verbs. It is an excellent discipline of the mind.

THE PRESENT.	THE PRETERIT OR PAST.	THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.	THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Abide,	abode,	abiding,	abode.
Arise,	arose,	arising,	arose.
Be,	was,	being,	been.
Bear,	bore or bare,	bearing,	borne or born.*
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beat or beaten.
Begin,	began,	beginning,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beholding,	beheld.
Beseech,	besought,	beseeching,	besought.
Beset,	beset,	besetting,	beset.
Bid,	bid or bade,	bidding,	bid or bidden.
Bide,	bode,	biding,	bode.
Bind,	bound,	binding,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting,	bitten or bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bleeding,	bled.
Blow,	blew,	blowing,	blown.
Break,	broke,	breaking,	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Burst,	burst,	bursting,	burst.

LESSON LXX

Buy,	bought,	buying,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting,	cast.
Catch,	caught,	catching,	caught.

* BORNE signifies carried; *born* signifies brought forth.

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imperfect Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Chide,	chid,	chiding,	chidden or chid.
Choose,	chose,	choosing,	chosen.
Cleave,*	cleft or clove,	cleaving,	cleft or cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Come,	came,	coming,	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	creeping,	crept.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Deal,	dealt,	dealing,	dealt.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drinking,	drunk or drank.
Drive,	drove,	driving,	driven.
Eat,	ate,	eating,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	falling,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting,	fought.

LESSON LXXI

Find,	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forbearing,	forborne.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaking,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	freezing,	frozen.
Get,	got,	getting,	got or gotten.
Give,	gave,	giving,	given.
Go,	went,	going,	gone.
Grind,	ground,	grinding,	ground.

* Cleave, to *split*, is irregular, as above; *cleave*, to *stick*, is regular, but *clove* was formerly used, in the preterit, for *cleaved*.

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imperfect Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Grow,	grew,	growing,	grown.
Have,	had,	having,	had.
Hear,	heard,	hearing,	heard.
Hide,	hid,	hiding,	hidden or hid.
Hit,	hit,	hitting,	hit.
Hold,	held,	holding,	held or holden.
Keep,	kept,	keeping,	kept.
Know,	knew,	knowing,	known.
Lay,	laid,	laying,	laid.
Lead,	led,	leading,	led.

LESSON LXXII

Leave,	left,	leaving,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lending,	lent.
Let,	let,	letting,	let.
Lie (to rest),	lay,	lying,	lain.
Lose,	lost,	losing,	lost.
Make,	made,	making,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meaning,	meant.
Meet,	met,	meeting,	met.
Outdo,	outdid,	outdoing,	outdone.
Pay,	paid,	paying,	paid.
Put,	put,	putting,	put.
Read,	read,	reading,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rending,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	ridding,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	riding,	ridden.
Ring,	rang or rung,	ringing,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	rising,	risen.
Run,	ran or run,	running,	run.
Say,	said,	saying,	said.
See,	saw,	seeing,	seen.

LESSON LXXIII

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imperfect Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Seek,	sought,	seeking,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	selling,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sending,	sent.
Set,	set,	setting,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaking,	shaken.
Shed,	shed,	shedding,	shed.
Shoe,	shod,	shoeing,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shooting,	shot.
Shred,	shred,	shredding,	shred.
Shrink,	shrunk or shrank,	shrinking,	shrunk or shrunken.
Shut,	shut,	shutting,	shut.
Sing,	sang or sung,	singing,	sung.
Sink,	sank or sunk,	sinking,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sitting,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slaying,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	sleeping,	slept.
Slide,	slid,	sliding,	slid or slidden.
Sling,	slung,	slinging,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slinking,	slunk.
Smite,	smote,	smiting,	smitten or smit.

LESSON LXXIV

Speak,	spoke,	speaking,	spoken.
Spend,	spent,	spending,	spent.
Spin,	spun,	spinning,	spun.
Spit,	spit,	spitting,	spit.
Spread,	spread,	spreading,	spread.
Spring,	sprung or sprang,	springing,	sprung.
Stand,	stood,	standing,	stood.
Steal,	stole,	stealing,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck,	sticking,	stuck.

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imperfect Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Sting,	stung,	stinging,	stung.
Stride,	strode,	striding,	stridden or strid.
Strike,	struck,	striking,	struck or stricken.
String,	strung,	stringing,	strung.
Strive,	strove,	striving,	striven.
Sweep,	swept,	sweeping,	swept.
Swear,	swore,	swearing,	sworn.
Swim,	swam,	swimming,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swinging,	swung.
Take,	took,	taking,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	teaching,	taught.

LESSON LXXV

Tear,	tore,	tearing,	torn.
Tell,	told,	telling,	told.
Think,	thought,	thinking,	thought.
Throw,	threw,	throwing,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrusting,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	treading,	trodden or trod.
Wear,	wore,	wearing,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	weaving,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	weeping,	wept.
Win,	won,	winning,	won.
Wind,	wound,	winding,	wound.
Wring,	wrung,	wringing,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	writing,	written.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write sentences to illustrate the use of each of the following verbs in each of the four forms given in the list of irregular verbs: Be, bid, blow, break, buy, choose, come, do, draw, drink, drive, eat, fall, feed, fight, freeze, get, go, hear, lay, lie, ring, run, see, sing, swim, teach, throw, win, write.

EXAMPLE: 1. Be kind to every one. 2. He was there. 3. Being very busy, I did not go. 4. Henry has been sick. In writing this exercise the compound form may be used as in 4.

LESSON LXXVI

REDUNDANT VERBS

The following table exhibits the redundant verbs as they are generally used, or as they may be used without grammatical impropriety. The preferable forms are placed first.

LIST OF REDUNDANT VERBS

THE PRESENT.	THE PRETERIT OR PAST.	THE IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.	THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
Awake,	awoke or awaked,	awaking,	awoke.
Bend,	bent or bended,	bending,	bent or bended.
Bereave,	bereft or bereaved,	bereaving,	bereft or bereaved.
Bet,	bet or betted,	betting,	bet or betted.
Blend,	blended or blent,	blending,	blended or blent.
Bless,	blessed or blest,	blessing,	blessed or blest.
Build,	built or builded,	building,	built or builded.
Burn,	burned or burnt,	burning,	burned or burnt.
Clothe,	clothed or clad,	clothing,	clothed or clad.
Curse,	cursed or curst,	cursing,	cursed or curst.
Dare,	dared or durst,	daring,	dared.
Dig,	dug or digged,	digging,	dug or digged.
Dream,	dreamed or dreamt,	dreaming,	dreamed or dreamt.
Dress,	dressed or drest,	dressing,	dressed or drest.
Dwell,	dwelt or dwelled,	dwelling,	dwelt or dwelled.
Geld,	gelded or gelt,	gelding,	gelded or gelt.
Gild,	gilded or gilt,	gilding,	gilded or gilt.
Gird,	girded or girt,	girding,	girded or girt.
Grave,	graved,	graving,	graven or graved.
Hang,	hanged or hung,	hanging,	hanged or hung.

LESSON LXXVII

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imperfect Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Heave,	Heaved or hove,	heaving,	heaved or hove.
Hew,	hewed,	hewing,	hewed or hewn.
Kneel,	knelt or kneeled,	kneeling,	knelt or kneeled.
Knit,	knitted or knit,	knitting,	knitted or knit.
Lade,	laded,	lading,	laden or laded.
Lean,	leaned or leant,	leaning,	leaned or leant.
Leap,	leaped or leapt,	leaping,	leaped or leapt.
Learn,	learned or learnt,	learning,	learned or learnt.
Light,	lighted or lit,	lighting,	lighted or lit.
Mow,	mowed,	mowing,	mowed or mown.
Pen (to coop),	penned or pent,	penning,	penned or pent.
Quit,	quitted or quit,	quitting,	quitted or quit.
Reave,	reft or reaved,	reaving,	reft or reaved.
Rive,	rived,	riving,	rived or riven.
Saw,	sawed,	sawing,	sawed or sawn.
Seethe,	seethed or sod,	seething,	seethed or sodden.
Sew,	sewed,	sewing,	sewed or sewn.
Shape,	shaped,	shaping,	shaped or shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaving,	shaved or shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shearing,	sheared or shorn.

LESSON LXXVIII

Shine,	Shone or shined,	shining,	shone or shined.
Show,	showed,	showing,	shown or showed.
Slit,	slit or slitted,	slitting,	slit or slitted.
Smell,	smelled or smelt,	smelling,	smelled or smelt.
Sow,	sowed,	sowing,	sown or sowed.
Speed,	sped or speeded,	speeding,	sped or speeded.
Spell,	spelled or spelt,	spelling,	spelled or spelt.
Spill,	spilled or spilt,	spilling,	spilled or spilt.

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Imperfect Participle.	The Perfect Participle.
Split,	split or splitted,	splitting,	split or splitted.
Spoil,	spoiled or spoilt,	spoiling,	spoiled or spoilt.
Stave,	staved or stove,	staving,	staved or stove.
Stay,	stayed or staid,	staying,	stayed or staid.
Strow,	strowed,	strowing,	strowed or strown.
Sweat,	sweat or sweated,	sweating,	sweat or sweated.
Swell,	swelled,	swelling,	swelled or swollen.
Thrive,	thrived,	thriving,	thriven or thrived.
Wet,	wet or wetted,	wetting,	wet or wetted.
Wont,	wont,	wonting,	wont or wonted.
Work,	worked or wrought,	working,	worked or wrought.

Note.—The pupils should write sentences to illustrate the different uses of the redundant verbs in the same manner as was done under the irregular verbs.

Some of the antiquated forms may be omitted, as they are inserted for reference. They are often found in poetry.

LESSON LXXIX

DEFECTIVE VERBS

When any of the principal parts of a verb are wanting, the tenses usually derived from those parts are, of course, also wanting. All the auxiliaries, except *do*, *be*, and *have*, are defective, but, as they become parts of other verbs, they do not need the parts which are technically said to be wanting.

The following list contains all the defective verbs, except *methinks*, with its preterit *methought*, which is impersonal and irregular (equivalent to *it thinks me—it seems to me*). Impersonal verbs are used only in the third person; as, it *rains*.

LIST OF THE DEFECTIVE VERBS

The Present.	The Preterit or Past.	The Present.	The Preterit or Past.
Beware,	———	Shall,	should.
Can,	could.	Will,	would.
May,	might.	Quoth,	quoth.
Must,	must.	Wis,	wist,
Ought,	ought.	Wit,	wot.

LESSON LXXX

EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Diagram the following sentences, and parse each verb:

1. He might have done the work. 2. They could have gone home yesterday. 3. He went away in haste. 4. He will have finished the work before you return. 5. If I were you I would go to school. 6. Read this letter, and you will understand why he cannot come. 7. The truth should be told. 8. Smiling May has come, and the flowers are in bloom. 9. The grass looks green, and the birds are singing in the trees. 10. The mill pond was frozen over all winter. 11. Does your sister intend to go to Europe this year? 12. Must you go so soon? 13. I would have told you, had I known it. 14. You shall not prevent him from going. 15. I shall go to New York City in the morning.

The pupils should write sentences each containing an active verb as directed in the following:

In the indicative and past tense; potential mood, preperfect tense; indicative, first-future; subjunctive, present; potential, preperfect; infinitive, present.

Write a sentence containing a passive verb in the indicative, present; the potential, preperfect; the first-future, present.

Write a question in the indicative, past tense; the potential, present; the indicative, preperfect.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Mention the four principal parts of a verb. 2. What is the difference between a regular and an irregular verb?

3. What are the auxiliary verbs? 4. Explain the difference between perfect and preperfect tense. 5. Give the definition of moods, and explain what is meant by *being, action, passion,* as used in the definition. 6. What is meant by the inflection of a verb? 7. What is the difference between the inflection and the modification of a verb?

LESSON LXXXI

PARTICIPLES—CLASSES

Verbs		Participles	
The Present.	The Preterit.	The Imperfect.	The Perfect.
1. Love,	loved,	loving,	loved.
2. Correct,	corrected,	correcting,	corrected.
3. Do,	did,	doing,	done.

4. She felt that in loving her boy so fondly she was liable to overlook his faults without correcting them.

5. He, loved by his mother so fondly, felt that he should do all he could to please her; and, when corrected by her, he should feel that she was doing her duty to him; also, that it was done for his good.

In 1, 2, and 3, there are four parts to each verb; but the third and fourth parts in each may be used as participles, either separately, or compounded with other verbs.

In 4, *loving* and *correcting* are participles.

In 5, *loved* and *corrected* are participles; but *was doing,* composed of *was* and *doing,* is a verb; also, the verb *was* and the participle *done,* united form the compound *was done.*

It is thus seen that the third and fourth parts of all complete verbs may be used separately as participles, or be

compounded with verbs to make the compound form of the verb.

The imperfect participle has two forms, active and passive; as, loving (active); being loved (passive.)

The imperfect participle is that which ends commonly in *ing*, and implies a *continuance* of the being, action, or passion; as, "He stood on the piazza talking to a man; and, being impressed with his appearance, he employed him."

The perfect participle is that which implies a previous completion of the being, action, or passion; as, "Truth crushed to earth will rise again."

The preperfect participle is that which takes the sign having, and implies a previous completion of the being, action, or passion; as,

1. **After having paid the money, he returned home.**
2. **Having been paid the money, he returned home.**

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write the participles of the verbs given below in the following form:

Active.		Passive.	
Imperfect.	Writing.	*Imperfect.*	Being written.
Perfect.	———	*Perfect.*	Written.
Preperfect.	Having written.	*Preperfect.*	Having been written.

Hear, talk, show, clothe, sow, work, think, keep, feed, give, hurt, wear, know, write, make, seek, speak.

To each of these verbs write a sentence containing one or more participles.

The English verb in the active form has two participles—the *imperfect* and the *preperfect;* and in the passive form, three—the *imperfect*, the *perfect*, and the *preperfect.*

There are two classes of participles; namely, the participle participating in the properties of a verb and an

adjective, and the one participating in the properties of a verb and a noun.

The following are examples of each:

VERB AND ADJECTIVE

1. He came *running* very swiftly.
2. She, *dying*, gave it to me.
3. The enemy *having been defeated*, fled.
4. She stood *wringing* her hands.
5. Error *wounded* writhes in pain.
6. The Justice read *amused, amazed.*

VERB AND NOUN

1. She is fond of *reading* good books.
2. After *having paid* the money he retired.
3. He was released without *paying* his ransom.
4. Before *leaving* the city he paid his debts.
5. In *keeping* His commandments there is great reward.

Supply participles in the place of blanks in the following written exercises:

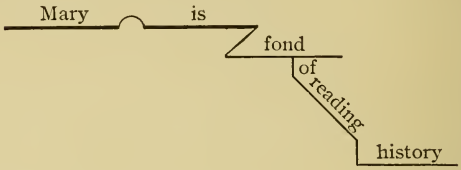
1. He was engaged in ——— Plato.
2. She stood on the piazza ——— to the boy.
3. He stood ——— at the grandeur of the scene before him.
4. The selections ——— by the children were listened to attentively.
5. ——— in church is an act of rudeness.
6. ——— history is time properly spent.

QUESTIONS

1. How many kinds of participles are there? 2. What is the imperfect participle? the preperfect participle? Give an example of each. 3. Which part of the verb may be used as participles? 4. How may they be compounded to form verbs?

PARSING OF THE PARTICIPLE

1. Mary is fond of reading history.



Reading is an imperfect participle, from *read, rēad, reading, rĕad;* and is governed by the preposition *of.*

Reading is here used like a noun in being governed by the preposition *of,* and like a verb in having the object *history*

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns or else are governed by prepositions.

2. I saw the horse running rapidly down the street.

Running is an imperfect participle, from *run, ran, running, run,* and relates to *horse.*

Running is here used like an adjective in relation to horse, and like a verb in expressing action.

3. Being discovered, he made a hasty retreat.

Being discovered is an imperfect participle, passive in use, from *discover, discovered, discovering, discovered,* and relates to *he.*

Here *being* is prefixed to discovered, making the passive form of the participle, *being discovered.*

LESSON LXXXII

ADVERBS—CLASSES

Adverbs may be reduced to four general classes; namely, adverbs of *time,* of *place,* of *degree,* and of *manner.*

ADVERBS OF TIME are those which answer to the question, *When? How long? How soon? How often?* including these which ask. *Adverbs* of time may be subdivided as follows:

1. Of time present; as, *Now, yet, to-day, instantly.*
2. Of time past; as, *Already, lately, heretofore, since, ago.*
3. Of time to come; as, *To-morrow, hereafter, henceforth.*
4. Of time relative; as, *When, then, before, after, while.*
5. Of time absolute; as, *Always, ever, never.*
6. Of time repeated; as, *Often, seldom, daily, thrice.*
7. Of the order of time; as *First, secondly, thirdly,* etc.

In 4, *relative* has reference to time *past, present,* or *future,* in a comparative sense; *relating to,* not definite; as, I shall go after I get through with this work.

In 5, *absolute* means *certain, positive,* not *limited;* as, The seasons always follow one another in regular order.

Write sentences each containing one or more of the following adverbs:

Now, yet, instantly, lately, ago, hereafter, when, never, often, daily, first, secondly.

1. What is an adverb of time? 2. What is meant by time present? past? to come? 3. What is meant by time relative? absolute? *time repeated?* order of time?

NOTE.—Time present may mean this moment, this hour, to-day, this week, this month, this year, or this century; that is, we may compare this week with the past week, or this year with the past year, etc. The object in having so many sentences written is to illustrate the use of words in their different relations with other words in sentences, and to facilitate the power of expression.

ADVERBS OF PLACE

ADVERBS OF PLACE are those which answer to the question, *Where? Whither? Whence?* or *Whereabouts?* including these which ask.

Adverbs of place may be subdivided as follows:

1. Of place in which; as, *Where, here, there, somewhere.*
2. Of place to which; as, *Whither, thither, hither.*
3. Of place from which; as, *Whence, hence, thence.*
4. Of the order of place; as, *First, secondly, thirdly,* etc.

1. What is an adverb of place? 2. How are they divided? 3. What is the difference between an adverb of place and an adverb of time?

Write sentences each containing one or more of the following adverbs:

Where, there, somewhere, whither, hence, first, secondly.

LESSON LXXXIII

Diagram the following sentences and parse the adverbs:

1. Nothing can ever justify ingratitude.
2. Plants raised with tenderness are seldom strong.
3. A covetous person is always in want.
4. Where did you go yesterday?
5. He came here from New York.
6. Where are you going?
7. Whither goest thou?

NOTE.—*Where* is now generally used instead of *whither;* but in poetry *whither* is often used.

ADVERBS OF DEGREE

ADVERBS OF DEGREE are those which answer to the question, *How much? How little?* or to the idea of *more* or *less.*

Adverbs of degree may be subdivided as follows:

1. Of excess or abundance; as, *Much, chiefly, fully.*
2. Of equality; as, *Enough, sufficiently, equally, so, as.*
3. Of deficiency or abatement; as, *Little, scarcely, hardly.*
4. Of quantity; as, *How, ever, so, somewhat.*

Write sentences to illustrate the use of each of the adverbs in 1, 2, and 3.

ADVERBS OF MANNER

ADVERBS OF MANNER are those which answer to the question, *How?* or, by affirming, denying, or doubting, show how a subject is regarded.

Adverbs of manner may be subdivided as follows:

1. Of quality; as *Well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly,* and many others formed by adding *ly* to adjectives of quality.
2. Of affirmation; as, *Verily, truly, indeed, surely.*
3. Of negation; as, *Not, nowise.*
4. Of doubt; as, *Perhaps, haply, possibly, perchance.*
5. Of mode; as, *Thus, somehow, like, else, otherwise.*
6. Of cause; as, *Why, wherefore, therefore.*

OBSERVATIONS: Sometimes *here, there,* and *where* are compounded with prepositions; as, *Hereby, whereby, whereof.* Compounds of this kind are generally considered adverbs.

Write sentences to illustrate the use of the adverbs in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

1. What is an adverb of degree? of manner? 2. Tell the difference between an adverb of degree and one of manner. 3. Give a sentence to illustrate the use of each.

Write sentences each containing one of the following adverbs: *Much, fully, sufficiently, little, scarcely, how, somewhat, truly, surely, possibly, not, somehow, therefore.*

Diagram the following sentences and parse the adverbs:

1. Hear patiently if thou wouldst speak well.
2. He that hoists too much sail runs a risk of oversetting.
3. Of all tame animals the flatterer is the most mischievous.
4. He who has not virtue is not truly wise.
5. Sloth enfeebles equally the bodily and the mental powers.

LESSON LXXXIV

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

Adverbs sometimes perform the office of conjunctions, and serve to connect the clauses of a sentence, as well as to express some circumstance of time, place, degree, or manner. Adverbs that are so used are called CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS; as, *When, where, after, before, since,* etc.

Put the following sentences into diagram and parse the adverbs:

1. They feared when they heard that they were Romans.
2. When spring returns, the trees resume their verdure.
3. Make hay while the sun shines.
4. He came home before the shower reached us.
5. I will follow where you dare to lead.
6. He came directly home after he had finished his work.

PARSING: *When* is a conjunctive adverb of time, and relates to heard; and the clause which follows modifies *feared* in the principal clause.

MODIFICATIONS

Adverbs have no modifications, except that a few are *compared* after the manner of adjectives; as, *Soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest; long, longer, longest.*

The following are irregularly compared: *Well, better, best; badly,* or *ill, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, more, most; far, farther, farthest; forth, further, furthest.*

Most adverbs of *quality* will admit the comparative adverbs *more* and *most, less* and *least,* before them; as, *Wisely, more wisely, most wisely; culpably, less culpably, least culpably.*

Diagram the following sentences and parse the adverbs:

1. Few shall part where many meet.
2. Rich gifts wax poor when givers prove unkind.
3. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
4. It was the time when lilies blow.
5. The dew falls after the sun has set.
6. Now is done thy long day's work.
7. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.

1. Into how many general classes are adverbs divided? 2. Define each class. 3. How does a conjunctive adverb differ from other adverbs? 4. Compare *Soon, often, long, well, badly, little, much, far, forth.* 5. Compare diminutively *Wisely, culpably.*

LESSON LXXXV

CONJUNCTIONS—CLASSES

Conjunctions are divided into two general classes, COPULATIVE and DISJUNCTIVE. Some of each of these sorts are CORRESPONSIVE.

1. "He and I shall not dispute; *for, if* he has any choice, I shall readily grant it."
2. "Be not overcome (by) evil, *but* overcome evil with good."
3. "John came *neither* eating *nor* drinking."

In 1, there are three clauses:

(*a*) He and I shall not dispute.
(*b*) He has any choice.
(*c*) I shall readily grant it.

NOTE.—The connectives are *for* and *if*. In the first clause, *and* is used to connect *he* and *I*, which form the compound subject. It denotes addition of meaning; that is, that the two subjects, *he* and *I* must be taken together as the subject of *shall dispute*. *For* is used to connect the clause *he and I shall not dispute* and the compound clause *I shall readily grant it, if he has any choice*. It denotes a cause or reason why they will not dispute. *If* is used to connect the two clauses *I shall readily grant it* and *he has any choice*. These three conjunctions, thus used, are called copulative conjunctions.

A copulative conjunction is a conjunction that denotes an addition, a cause, or a supposition.

In 2, *but* connects the two clauses, *Be not overcome by evil*, and *overcome evil with good*. It denotes opposition of meaning in the two sentences, and is, therefore, called a disjunctive conjunction.

A disjunctive conjunction is a conjunction that denotes opposition of meaning.

In 3, *neither*, a conjunction, refers to *nor* as the connecting word.

Nor connects *eating* and *drinking;* and, because the two words are so used, they are called CORRESPONSIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

The CORRESPONSIVE CONJUNCTIONS are those which are used in pairs, so that one refers to the other.

Diagrams for the three sentences representing the copulative, disjunctive, and corresponsive conjunctions are given on p. 163.

The following are the principal conjunctions:

1. COPULATIVE: *And, as, both, because, even, for, if, that, then, since, seeing, so.*

2. DISJUNCTIVE: *Or, nor, either, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, save, notwithstanding.*

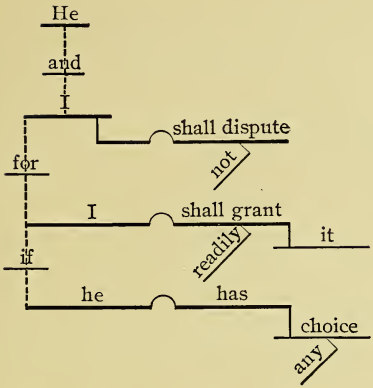
3. CORRESPONSIVES: *Both—and; as—as; as—so; if—then; either—or; neither—nor; whether—or; though* or *although—yet.*

Diagram the following sentences and parse the conjunctions:

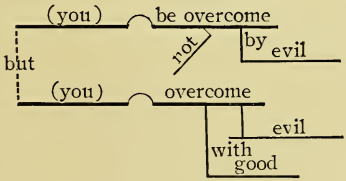
1. The earth, the air, and the water teem with life.
2. Music refines, purifies, elevates, and cheers the mind.
3. The horse hearing the train, turned, looked, and ran away.
4. James will either go in the morning or stay another week.
5. Neither James nor John was at church.
6. He came home yesterday and went away this afternoon.
7. The distance is not great; you can ride or walk.
8. Darius did not go yesterday, because he did not feel well.
9. Contempt leaves a deeper scar than anger.
10. Vices, though near relations, are all at variance.
11. Doubts should not excite contention, but inquiry.
12. Both the ten- and the eight-syllable verses are iambics.
13. Duly appreciate your privileges and improve them.

Write five sentences, each of which will contain one or more conjunctions in classes 1, 2, and 3.

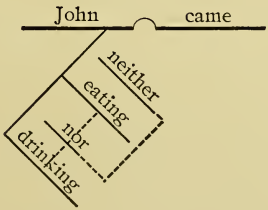
(1)


He
and
I
shall dispute
not
for
I
shall grant
it
readily
if
he
has
choice
any

(2)


(you)
be overcome
not
by
evil
but
(you)
overcome
evil
with
good

(3)


John
came
neither
eating
nor
drinking

LESSON LXXXVI

PREPOSITIONS

PREPOSITIONS ARE WORDS USED TO EXPRESS RELATION. They are neither principal parts nor adjuncts in a sentence. They introduce phrases that are generally adjective or adverbial in office.

1. Mr. Thomas is a man *of* good principles.
2. It is good *for* food.
3. The tree stands *on* the hill.
4. I saw the horse running *down* the street.
5. Charles is fond *of* reading Plato.

NOTE.—The preposition always expresses a relation between the object and the word to which the prepositional phrase is an adjunct.

Thus in 1, *of* expresses a relation between *man* and *principles;* and the phrase *of good principles* is called an adjective phrase.

In 2, the phrase *for food* is an adverbial phrase used as an adjunct of *good.* In 4, the phrase *down the street* is adverbial, modifying *running.* In 5, *of reading Plato* is an adverbial phrase, modifying *fond.* In this phrase, *of* shows the relation between *fond* and *reading. Plato* is here the object of the imperfect transitive participle *reading.*

The following are the principal simple prepositions:

Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid or *amidst, among* or *amongst, around, at, athwart; before, behind, below, beneath, beside* or *besides, between* or *betwixt, beyond, by; concerning; down, during; except, excepting; for, from; in, into; notwithstanding; of, off, on, over; past; round; since; through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward* or *towards; under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon; with, within, without.*

NOTE.—The words in the preceding list when used in a sentence are generally prepositions, but when any of them are employed without a subsequent term of relation they are adverbs. *For*, when it signifies *because*, is a conjunction; *without*, when used for *unless*, and *notwithstanding*, when placed before a nominative, are called conjunctions also.

Two or more words are sometimes used as a compound preposition, being combined so as to express a single relation; as in the following examples:

"Lambeth is *over against* Westminster Abbey."

"And *from before* the lustre of her face."

"Trochaic verse consists *of from* one to three feet." The meaning is, Trochaic verse consists of *feet* ranging from one *foot* to three *feet*.

Copy the following sentences, supply the necessary prepositions, and in class exercise tell the use of each preposition; also tell whether the phrase in each case is adjective or adverbial.

1. They marched ——— the enemy ——— the break ——— day. 2. Plead ——— the innocent. 3. Live in harmony ——— nature. 4. Keep ——— the bounds ——— propriety ——— your actions ——— others. 5. Contend not ——— trifles. 6. Many fail ——— grasping ——— things ——— their reach. 7. In passing ——— the road ——— the woods he found that he was ——— two fires. 8. He walked ——— the lane ——— the hill ——— the woods and came back ——— the meadow ——— the house.

Observe the use of the prepositions in the following sentences and diagram each one:

1. James divided the apples *among* the boys.
2. He divided the money *between* the two boys.
3. James was struck *by* his playmate.
4. The apple was cut *with* a knife.
5. The book lay *on* the table.
6. He placed the book *upon* the shelf.
7. He put the book *into* the bookcase.
8. He walked around *in* the room.
9. He walked *into* the room.

10. He passed along *through* the hall *into* the room.
11. He made the statement *over* his own signature.
12. I agree *with* him.
13. I differ *with* him.
14. I differ *from* him.

LESSON LXXXVII

INTERJECTIONS

1. "Those were happy days; but, alas! they are no more."
2. "Pshaw! never mind it." "Good night!"

Interjections are uttered, when the mind is suddenly or greatly excited, to express some strong feeling or sudden emotion. They have no grammatical relation to other words in a sentence, and are therefore always independent.

In 1, *alas* is an interjection signifying grief or sorrow; it is used independently.

In 2, *pshaw* is an interjection expressing contempt; and *good night* is an interjection used in parting or leaving.

The following are the principal interjections arranged according to the emotions which they are generally intended to indicate:

1. Joy: eigh! hey! io! 2. Sorrow: oh! ah! alas! alack! welladay! 3. Wonder: heigh! ha! strange! 4. Wishing or earnestness: O! 5. Pain: oh! ah! eh! 6. Contempt: pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! tut! 7. Aversion: foh! fie! off! begone! avaunt! 8. Calling aloud: ho! soho! hollo! 9. Exultation: aha! huzza! heyday! hurrah! 10. Laughter: ha! ha! ha! 11. Salutation: welcome! hail! all hail! 12. Calling attention: lo! behold! look! see! hark! 13. Calling to silence: hush! hist! mum! 14. Surprise: oh! ha! hah! what! 15. Languor: heigh-ho! 16. Stopping: avast! whoa!

A noun or pronoun is sometimes independent with or without an interjection; that is, it is neither the subject nor the object of a verb, participle, or preposition; as,

"O *thou*, who rulest the heavens and the earth."

O Henry, look and see if they are coming.

A pronoun so used should have the form of the nominative case.

EXERCISE

Diagram the following sentences and parse the interjections:

1. Alas! how we have been betrayed! 2. Ah! few shall part where many meet! 3. Poh! never trouble thy head with such fancies. 4. "O! sooner shall the earth and stars fall into chaos!" 5. "O Liberty! how many crimes have been committed in thy name!" 6. Hark! the trumpet sounds! 7. Behold! what a beautiful sight is there! 8. "Avaunt! and quit my sight." 9. Pshaw! this is contemptible.

GENERAL CLASS TALK IN REVIEW

1. Describe the classes of participles and tell how they differ from verbs.
2. Describe the classes of conjunctions.
3. Describe the classes of adverbs.
4. Describe the preposition.
5. Describe the interjection.

LESSON LXXXVIII

CAPITALS

It is very important that capitals should be properly employed; and the pupil should become so familiar with the following rules that he can apply them in written composition.

RULES

RULE I. TITLES OF BOOKS

1. The titles of books and the heads of their principal divisions should be printed in capitals; as (see any book

which you have for examples), **INTERMEDIATE LANGUAGE; THE INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.**

2. When books are merely mentioned, the principal words in their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small; as, "Pope's Essay on Man"; "Westlake's How to Write Letters"; "Josephus' History of the Jewish War."

Rule II. First Words

The first word of every distinct sentence, or any clause separately numbered or paragraphed, should begin with a capital; as,

1. Can you repeat Rule II?
2. Be sure that you understand the meaning of each word in the rule.
3. Improve your time.
4. "Parents should teach their children:
 "1. The duty of obedience;
 "2. The importance of industry;
 "3. The need of perseverance."

Rule III. Names of the Deity

Every name of the Deity should begin with a capital; as, God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, Divine Providence, the Messiah, the Comforter, the Father, the Great First Cause.

Remark.—Pronouns referring to the Deity need not be written with a capital unless they are used emphatically; as, "The *Deity* revealed himself unto Moses." "Shall *He* who created the ear not hear?" "The hope of my spirit turns trembling to *thee*."—*Moore.*

Rule IV. Proper Names

Titles of office or honor and proper names of every description should begin with capitals; as, Chief Justice Hale, James, London, the Park, the Albion, the Sun, The Tribune, the Spectator, the Thames, the Hudson, the School Bulletin, the Great American Tea Company. (See pages 1–4.)

Rule V. Objects Personified

The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual, should begin with a capital; as,

1. "Come, gentle *Spring*, ethereal mildness, come."
2. "*Laziness* travels so slow that *Poverty* soon overtakes him."
3. "O *Solitude*, where are thy charms
 That sages have seen in thy face?"—*Cowper.*
4. "The very *Day* turned to his rest."
5. "Lo stern-clad *War* his gorgeous standard rears."—*Rogers.*

In 1, the word *Spring*, the name of one of the seasons, is spoken of as if it were a person with the power of speech, and is said to be personified.

Sometimes life and personality are, in our imagination, attributed to inanimate things and the power of speech to animals. This is called *personification*, and the word which is the name of the object so personified should begin with a capital.

Personification is a figure by which, in imagination, we ascribe intelligence and personality to unintelligent beings or abstract qualities; as, "The Worm, aware of his intent, harangued him thus, right eloquent." "Upon this Fancy began again to bestir herself."

Here *Worm* is spoken of as having the power of speech like a person; and *Fancy*, an abstract noun, is represented as having the power of action.

Rule VI. Words Derived

Words derived from proper names of persons or places should begin with capitals; as,

Newtonian, from Newton; Grecian, from Greece; Roman, from Rome; American, from America. (See page 81.)

Rule VII. I and O

The words I and O should always be capitals; as, "Out of the depths have I cried unto thee, O Lord."

Rule VIII. Poetry

Every line of poetry, except what is regarded as making but one verse with the line preceding, should begin with a capital; as,

"Those Christians best deserve the name
Who studiously make peace their aim."

"To others do (the law is not severe)
What to thyself thou wishest to be done."

Rule IX. Examples

A full example, a distinct speech, or a direct quotation should begin with a capital; as,

1. "No man can be happy if self is the sole object of his thoughts and wishes."
2. "Remember this maxim: 'Know thyself.'"
3. "The dying Lawrence exclaimed, 'Don't give up the ship!'"
4. An old writer says, "By doing nothing, men learn to do evil."
5. Solomon said, "Pride goeth before destruction."

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Copy the following sentences and, in class exercise, give reasons for the use of capitals in each example:

1. Bancroft's "History of New York" is a very complete work.
2. Goldsmith's "Deserted Village" is a poem which appeals to the feelings.
3. Cooper's "The Last of the Mohicans" is an attractive book for young people.
4. Whittier wrote "Skipper Ireson's Ride."
5. Milton's "Paradise Lost" should be read by every student.
6. Hawthorne was the author of "Tanglewood Tales."
7. Miss Alcott's "Little Women" is an interesting little book.
8. John Marshall was Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.
9. Greater New York consists of the Borough of Manhattan and the Bronx, the Borough of Brooklyn, the Borough of Queens, and the Borough of Richmond.

10. Sir Walter Scott was the author of the "Lady of the Lake."
11. Pope says, "Order is Heaven's First Law."
12. "Be modest in speech, but excel in action" is said to be an old Chinese proverb.

LESSON LXXXIX

PUNCTUATION

A review of the directions for punctuation is given here. It is impossible to give complete instruction and have you understand the reasons for such punctuation until you have learned more about grammar. The following directions will be of assistance and afford a ready reference in composition work. When you are in doubt about the use of a comma, omit it.

THE COMMA

The comma is used to separate the simple clauses of a compound sentence; as,

1. Mary is diligent, but her sister is idle.
2. He does not complain, though he suffers much from pain.
3. "Art is long, and time is fleeting."
4. "Virtue is its own reward, and vice brings its own punishment."

The comma is used in a series of three or more words of the same construction; as,

1. Days, months, and years glide away.
2. Pupils should be diligent, earnest, and attentive.
3. George, James, and Henry took a walk.
4. The boys and girls laugh, talk, and play.
5. Peaches, pears, apples, and plums are delicious fruits.

The comma is used to set off expressions containing a word or words in apposition; as,

1. Nero, the Roman emperor, was very cruel.
2. The book may be found at Brentano's, the bookseller.

3. Diogenes, the Greek philosopher, lived in a tub.
4. "Mahomet was a native of Mecca, a city in Arabia."
5. Harvey, a celebrated physician, discovered the circulation of the blood.
6. Napoleon, Emperor of France, died at St. Helena.

The comma is required when a verb is understood; as,

1. "Industry brings pleasure; idleness, pain."
2. "Passion overcomes shame; boldness, fear; and madness, reason."
3. "War is the law of violence; peace, the law of love."

Independent words, phrases, and clauses require a comma; as,

1. Charles, you may tell what you know about the use of the comma.
2. "Almet," said he, "remember what thou hast seen."
3. Generally speaking, that is true.
4. "To confess the truth, I was wrong."

The comma is used to separate dependent clauses used descriptively; as,

1. Mr. Smith, who was very ill, has recovered.
2. Washington, who was a true patriot, saved his country.
3. I, who was wholly innocent, was condemned.
4. Cæsar, who won so many victories, was assassinated.

The comma is not required when the dependent clause is used as a modifying adjunct; as,

1. A boy who tells the truth should be believed.
2. He that walketh uprightly walketh surely.
3. A man who acts honorably will be respected.
4. A triangle is a figure that has three sides.
5. They who do wrong repent it sooner or later.

Give a review talk about the comma.

LESSON XC

THE SEMICOLON

The semicolon is used to separate parts of a sentence less closely related than those which require a comma; as,

1. "Keep thy heart with all diligence; for out of it are the issues of life."—*Bible.*

2. "We poets in our youth begin in gladness;
But thereof come in the end despondency and madness."
Wordsworth.

The semicolon should be used when the related parts have a comma; as,

1. "Napoleon was an early riser; so were Frederick the Great, Charles the Twelfth, and Washington."

2. "Men are not to be judged by their looks, habits, and appearance; but by the character of their lives and conversation, and by their works."

3. "There is a fierce conflict of good and evil in the world; but good is in the ascendant, and must triumph at last."

The semicolon should be used before "as, viz., to wit, namely, i.e., that is," when they precede an enumeration of particulars; as,

1. Many English words are spelled in more than one way; as, sceptic, skeptic; centre, center.

2. The history of the world has been divided by some men into four periods or ages; viz., the golden age, the silver age, the brazen age, and the iron age.

3. I purchased the following articles from the store; namely, sugar, tea, coffee, and rice.

LESSON XCI

THE COLON

The colon should be used after a complete clause preceding an additional and explanatory remark; as,

1. "Avoid evil-doers: in such society a man may become ashamed of himself."
2. "See that moth fluttering around the candle: man of pleasure, behold thy image."
3. "Avoid affectation: it is a contemptible weakness."

The colon should be used after the words of address at the beginning of a speech; as,

Mr. president, ladies and gentlemen: We are here this evening to discuss those matters which concern the public welfare, etc.

A quotation introduced without dependence on a verb or conjunction is generally preceded by a colon; as,

"Always remember this ancient proverb: 'Know Thyself.'"

THE PERIOD

Every distinct declarative and imperative sentence should be followed by a period; as,

1. "Procrastination is the thief of time."
2. "There is no excellence without great labor."
3. "Make me a child again, just for to-night."—*Allen.*
4. "Make yourself necessary to some one."—*Emerson.*

The period should be placed after an abbreviated word; as,

1. Chas., for Charles; Wm., for William; A. D., for Anno Domini; Pro tem., for Pro tempore; Ult., for Ultimo; etc., for *and so forth.*
2. Dr. R. H. Marsh, F.R.S.; Geo. Stevens, Esq.; Horace Jones, Jun., M.D., LL.D.
3. The train leaves Weehawken at 6:15 P.M., and arrives at Liberty at 9:45 P.M.

Give a review talk on the semicolon, colon, and period.

LESSON XCII

THE INTERROGATION POINT

The interrogation point is used to denote a question; as,

1. "In life, can love be bought with gold?
 Are friendship's pleasures to be sold?"—*Johnson.*
2. I was asked, Will you stop for dinner?
3. Do you think we see ourselves as others see us?

THE EXCLAMATION POINT

The exclamation point is used when a sentence denotes some strong or sudden emotion; as,

1. "How dear to this heart are the scenes of my childhood!"
2. "Alas, poor Yorick!" "Alas for the man who has not learned to work!"
3. "Oh that a man should put an enemy into his mouth to steal away his brains!"
4. "Bah! that's the third umbrella gone since Christmas. What were you to do! Why, let him go home in the rain, to be sure."
5. Stop! Look! Listen!
6. "All hail, thou noble land, our fathers' native land!"

THE DASH

The dash is used to denote a break or an unexpected pause; as,

1. If you will give me your attention, I will show you—but stop! I do not know that you wish to see.
2. I take—eh! oh!—as much exercise——eh!—as I can.

The dash is used before a word or phrase repeated in an emphatic manner; as,

"You speak like a boy—like a boy who thinks the old, gnarled oak can be twisted as easily as a young sapling."

THE CURVES OR MARKS OF PARENTHESIS

The marks of parenthesis are used to inclose parenthetical expressions; as,

How often do you see a gentleman (if gentleman he can be called) commit an act of rude selfishness in a social gathering or public meeting!

BRACKETS

The brackets are often used to inclose some correction or explanation; as,

"He [who?] was of a different opinion."

Give a general review of this lesson.

LESSON XCIII

QUOTATIONS

1. "'Tis certain he could write, and cipher too."—*Goldsmith.*
2. "She thought the Isle that gave her birth
 The sweetest, wildest, land on earth."—*Hogg.*
3. "Never utter a falsehood, even for truth's sake."
4. "Always strive to follow the golden rule: 'Do unto others as ye would have others do unto you.'"
5. "There are three cardinal virtues; faith, hope, and charity."
6. "One to-day," says Franklin, "is worth two to-morrows."
7. "I will not," said John, "degrade myself by telling a falsehood."
8. A period is used after an abbreviated word; as, "John C. Smith;" "Gibbon's Hist., vol. i, p. 155."
9. Henry Clay said that he would rather be right than be president.
10. Henry Clay said, "I would rather be right than be president."

The first three sentences are the exact words quoted from other authors.

In 4, there is a quotation inclosed within another quo-

tation, and the inclosed quotation has only single quotation marks.

In 5, there is a single quotation. Observe, however, that there is a semicolon (;) after virtues, and that *faith*, *hope*, and *charity* are used to explain, or tell what is meant by, *three cardinal virtues*.

In 6, the quotation is separated by a remark.

In 7, a remark is also thrown in between the parts of the quotation.

In 8, the quotation is used as an illustration of the use of a period.

In 9, there is a statement of what Henry Clay said in substance, but not his exact words.

In 10, the exact words of Henry Clay are quoted.

Quotation marks (" ") distinguish words that are taken from some other author or speaker. A quotation within a quotation is marked with single points, which are placed within the others.

LESSON XCIV

THE APOSTROPHE

1. The boy's hat is torn.

2. A mother's love and a father's care are Nature's gifts for man's benefit.

3. "Liberal, not lavish, is kind Nature's hand."—*Beattie.*

4. 'Tis education that forms the common mind.

5. "Just as the twig is bent the tree's inclined."

6. "Or surely you'll grow double."

7. "I'll put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes."—*Shakespeare.*

8. Aren't you ready to go with us?

9. James doesn't know his lesson.
10. Where there's a will there's a way.
11. This isn't right.
12. O please don't go now.
13. Henry hasn't been to school to-day.
14. It is better not to use "I can't" for "I'll try."

In sentences 1, 2, and 3, the apostrophe is used to denote the possessive case.

In sentences 4–14, the apostrophe is used to denote the omission of one or more letters.

Sometimes we hear persons use expressions which are not grammatical, and exhibit an ignorance of the correct use of language.

A few such expressions are here given:

1. I haint seen him for I haven't seen him.
2. It aint right " It isn't right.
3. He don't know " He doesn't know.
4. Aint you going? " Aren't you going?
5. It's him " It is he; or, It is James, or whatever name belongs to the person.

The apostrophe usually denotes either the possessive case of a noun or the elision of one or more letters of a word; as,

The *girl's* regard for her *parents'* advice saved her much trouble.—*'gan, lov'd, e'en, thro';* for *began, loved, even, through.*

QUESTIONS

1. Tell the use of the apostrophe in the words in the first three lines. 2. Give the spelling of each word in which an apostrophe is used in lines from 4 to 14. 3. Define apostrophe.

LESSON XCV

LETTER-WRITING

A letter from a young girl at a summer resort in the country to her cousin in the city.

(Heading.)
Liberty, N. Y.,
July 1, 1902.

(Introduction.)
Miss Millie Irwin,
623 Madison Ave., New York City, N. Y.
Dear Millie,

Mother and I have been here at this place one week to-day, and we are, indeed, very pleasantly situated.

I arose very early this morning. The sun was just rising, and the air was fresh and cool. The flowers in the yard looked very pretty and the birds in the trees were singing their joyous morning songs. Some of them were plucking (stealing) cherries from the old cherry tree in the yard behind the house.

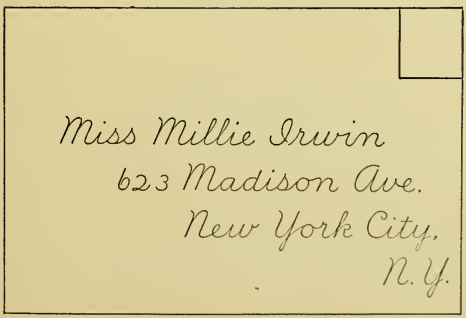
I hope that you will come up soon, so that we may have a lively, pleasant, enjoyable summer vacation together.

Please write me as soon as you receive this, and do come up this week if possible.

With kind regards to all I remain

(Conclusion.)
Your loving cousin,
Jennie Hawthorne.

ENVELOPE ADDRESSED



A letter consists of five parts; namely, the HEADING, the INTRODUCTION, the BODY, the CONCLUSION, and the SUPERSCRIPTION (on the envelope).

The HEADING consists of the name of the place at which the letter is written and the date.

The INTRODUCTION includes the name of the person to whom the letter is sent with the address, and under this the salutation.

The BODY of the letter is the chief part, containing what is designed to be said to the person to whom the letter is sent.

The CONCLUSION consists of a formal expression of respect, compliment, or endearment, and, underneath, the SIGNATURE.

The SUPERSCRIPTION is the statement on the envelope of the name and address of the person to whom the letter is sent.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Copy the letter, observing carefully the position of each of the parts of the letter and the punctuation. 2. Copy the description of the letter. 3. Write the superscription on a piece of paper the size of an envelope. Orally, give a general description of the letter.

LESSON XCVI

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

THE HEADING AND PUNCTUATION

(Heading.)
Liberty, N. Y.,
July 1, 1902.

This heading, "Liberty, N. Y.," tells where the letter was written, and "July 1, 1902," tells when it was written. When

a person answers a letter, he looks at the heading to see where to direct his answer.

The parts of the heading are grammatically arranged. Thus, "Liberty, N. Y., July 1, 1902," is equal to "*This is written at* Liberty, *which is in the State of* N. Y., *on the first day of* July, *in the year* 1902." Omit the words in italics and you have the abbreviated form, or heading, with the proper punctuation, given at the top of the letter.

The heading should always be written a line or two from the top of the page, and should be commenced so that it may end near the edge of the sheet at the right.

Observe the following models, and study carefully the ARRANGEMENT, CAPITALS, and PUNCTUATION.

MODELS

(1) Gettysburg, Adams Co., Pa.,
Sept. 20, 1902.

(2) Mount Holyoke Seminary,
South Hadley, Mass.,
Sept. 10, 1902.

(3) 222 Madison Ave., New York,
June 23, 1902.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write the following headings, and arrange each in a proper manner, paying particular attention to capitals, punctuation, and position.

1. Rochester, N. Y., Sept. 25, 1903.
2. 23 Exeter St., Boston, Mass., July 4, 1902.
3. American House, Reading, Pa., July 10, 1903.
4. Hotel St. Denis, Broadway and 10th St., New York City, N. Y.
5. Fifth Avenue Hotel, cor. 23d St., Broadway & Fifth Ave., New York City, N. Y.
6. 109 Wabash Ave., Chicago, Ill., March 2, 1902.

QUESTIONS

1. Where and how should the heading of a letter be written? 2. Describe the punctuation points used in the head-

ing. 3. Give reasons for the use of each capital in models 1, 2, and 3. Give a general talk about the heading of a letter.

LESSON XCVII

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

THE INTRODUCTION

The introduction in all business forms and formal letters consists of the name and address and salutation. In familiar letters, frequently, the salutation alone is used in the introduction, and the name and address are written at the bottom of the letter at the left of the signature, or omitted altogether.

In the introduction the address consists of the name and title and place of residence of the person addressed. That may be his home, boarding place, post-office, or place of business.

The ordinary titles are Miss, Mrs., Mr., and sometimes Esq. The title of Esq. seems properly to belong to a Justice of the Peace.

FORMS FOR INTRODUCTION OF LETTERS

MODEL 1.—SOCIAL FORM (FAMILIAR)

My dear Daughter,
Since I last wrote you, Jennie has come home, etc.

MODEL 2.—SOCIAL FORM

My dear Mr. Barker,
Your very welcome letter just received, etc.

MODEL 3.—SOCIAL FORM (FORMAL)

Mrs. Hanna Moore.

Dear Madam,

Please accept thanks for your beautiful bouquet of flowers sent me, etc.

MODEL 4.—BUSINESS FORM

Jamestown, N. Y.,
Oct. 3, 1902.

To the Editor of the New York Tribune,
New York City, N. Y.

Dear Sir,

Inclosed find two dollars, for which please send me the Semi-weekly Tribune one year.

Yours respectfully,
James Warner.

MODEL 5.—BUSINESS FORM

Mr. J. H. Weaver,
Dubuque, Iowa.

Dear Sir,

I intend to go west in a few days, etc.

Great irregularity prevails in the punctuation for the introduction. Some persons use the comma, some the colon, after the salutation.

Suppose we say:

Rev. John J. Robinson,
22 Main St., Meriden, Ct.

Dear Sir,

If the construction be written in full, we would say: "*This is written to the* Rev*erend* John J. Robinson, *who lives at* 22 Main St., *in the city of* Meriden, *which is in the State of* Connecticut.

Omit the italicized words and you have the name, the residence, the salutation, and the punctuation as given above.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the parts of the introduction of a letter? 2. What punctuation point should be used at the end of the address? after the salutation? 3. What is the difference between the social form and the business form? 4. Give a general description of the introduction of a letter.

LESSON XCVIII

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

The BODY of the letter should begin under the end of the salutation, and a margin should be left on the left-hand side of each page. The margin should be kept even.

Of course letters should be divided into paragraphs, like any other piece of composition; and great pains should be taken to write as plainly as possible.

The CONCLUSION, or the closing and the SIGNATURE, should be written neatly and plainly. A person's signature may be written so as to seem plain enough to the writer, and yet be a Chinese puzzle to every one else.

A lady, in writing a business letter, should sign her name so as to indicate her sex. If her name was Jennie Wilson, she might sign Jennie Wilson or Miss J. Wilson; if married, and her husband's name was Henry R. Warren, then sign Mrs. Henry R. Warren. If she became a widow, then sign Mrs. Jennie Warren.

Observe the forms and punctuation of the CONCLUSION:

Yours respectfully,
James Canfield.

Your loving daughter,
Evelyn Mulholland.

Very truly yours,
Clara Stoneman.

Yours truly,
John Judson.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the conclusion? 2. What is the signature? 3. Which is the principal part of the letter? Why? 4. How should a lady sign her name in a business letter? 5. Why should a letter be written neatly and plainly? 6. Why should the signature be written with care? 7. Give a general description of the body and conclusion of a letter.

LESSON XCIX

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

THE SUPERSCRIPTION

In directing letters, if the person lives in the country, the proper order is—

NAME AND TITLE,
POST OFFICE,
COUNTY,
STATE.

If the person lives in a city, the order is—

NAME AND TITLE,
NUMBER AND STREET,
CITY,
STATE.

Sometimes a letter is addressed to one person in care of another. The superscription may be written according to the directions given here, and in addition write in the left-hand lower corner Care of ———, giving name of the person.

In addressing a firm or company, the term *Messrs.* should be used before the name. Thus,

Messrs. William Wood & Co.,
51 Fifth Ave.,
New York City,
N. Y.

If you were to write a letter to the Governor of the State of New York, you should direct as follows:

Hon. B. B. Odell,
Governor of the State of New York,
Albany,
N. Y.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

1. Direct an envelope to a distant friend,—to some publishing house,—to your mother,—to your brother,—to your cousin.

Use an envelope, or use a piece of paper of the size of an envelope.

LESSON C

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

The following is a summary of the usual forms of addresses in writing letters:

1. For Very Formal Letters:

Mr. Thomas H. Benton,
Oneida,
N. Y.

Sir,

Mrs. F. A. Tompkins,
Brookline,
Mass.

Madam,

2. Ordinary Style:

Mr. W. W. Williams,
White Lake,
N. Y.

Dear Sir,

or

My dear Sir,

Mrs. E. A. Curtis,
Saugerties,
N. Y.

Dear Madam,

or

My dear Madam,

3. Implying Greater Intimacy:

Dear Mr. Brown,

or

My dear Mr. Brown,

Dear Mrs. Constance,

or

My dear Mrs. Constance,

In No. 3, the name should be written at the bottom, at the left, as follows:

Mr. J. H. Brown,
Rockland,
N. Y.

Other forms of address are used according to circumstances, varying with the persons addressed and the terms of intimacy; such as,

A. B. Wilson, Esq.; W. S. Webster, M.D.; Dr. John Dwyer; B. C. Palmer, LL.D.; Rev. H. J. Davis, or Rev. Mr. Davis; Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write one under another, on a letter sheet, in proper form the following headings and introductions:

1. 44 Main St., Cincinnati, O., March 15, 1900. Miss Thompson, Dear Madam,

2. New York, Aug. 5, 1901. Rev. John Brown, D.D., Dear Sir,

3. Penn Yan, N. Y., Dec. 20, 1901. My dear Mr. Smith.

4. Washington, D. C., Oct. 9, 1901. Mrs. C. H. Pearsall. Dear Madam.

5. Philadelphia, Jan. 1, 1900. Col. Henry Johnson, Washington, D. C., U. S. A. Dear Colonel,

6. Binghamton, N. Y., July 21, 1902. Dear Miss Adams,

7. Canton, Ill., Aug. 10, 1902. My dear Friend,

Give a general talk about the lesson.

LESSON CI

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

No. 21 Main Street,
Dover, Delaware,
July 8, 1902.

Dear Henry,

Cousin Richard is here with us now, and he and I intend to go to Revona Lake, Saturday morning, to spend the day and do some fishing also.

Can you go with us? If so, let me know at once, and we will call for you Friday evening about four o'clock. You can go home with us and we shall then be ready to start early Saturday morning. Be prepared to come if possible, and I am sure we shall have a pleasant time.

Your friend,
Harry Inglewald.

These two boys are intimate friends. Henry lives on a farm outside of Dover, but gets his mail at that post-office. He came to the office for his mail, but not having time to call on Harry, he wrote an answer as follows:

Dover, Delaware,
July 9, 1902.

Dear Harry,

I have just received your letter inviting me to go with you to Revona Lake, and I shall be ready to go at the time appointed.

Thanking you for your kind invitation, and hoping we shall all enjoy the day,

I remain
Your friend,
Henry Goodfellow.

LESSON CII

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

Norwalk, Ct.,
Sept. 5, 1902.

To the Editor of the School Journal,
61 East Ninth St., New York City, N. Y.

Dear Sir,

Inclosed find P. O. order for two dollars ($2.00), for which please send me the School Journal for one year commencing with the September number.

Yours respectfully,
Jas. J. Worth.

James decided to go to New York for a few days, and his uncle, Josiah Smith, gave him a letter of introduction to one of his friends in the city.

Here it is:

Norwalk, Ct.,
Sept. 21, 1902.

My dear Sir,

It gives me great pleasure to introduce to you my young nephew, Jas. J. Worth, who desires to spend a few days in the city. Any attention you may be able to give him will be gratefully acknowledged and cheerfully reciprocated by

Your old friend,
Josiah Smith.

Mr. Walter L. Young.

On the envelope was written,

Mr. Walter L. Young,
313 Fifth Ave.,
New York City,
N. Y.

Introducing Mr. Jas. J. Worth.

Copy these letters.—Explain use of capitals and punctuation.

LESSON CIII

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

NOTE OF INVITATION (Formal)

Miss Jennie Booth requests the pleasure of Miss Harriet Coleman's company on Thursday evening, June 4, at eight o'clock.
195 Christian Street.

ACCEPTANCE OF SAME

Miss Harriet Coleman accepts with pleasure Miss Jennie Booth's invitation for Thursday evening next at eight o'clock.
21 Elm St., May 31.

THE INVITATION DECLINED

Miss Harriet Coleman regrets that a previous engagement prevents the acceptance of Miss Booth's kind invitation for Thursday evening next.
21 Elm St., May 31.

WRITTEN EXERCISE

Write an invitation to one of your schoolmates, also an acceptance and a declination.

LESSON CIV

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

NOTES OF INVITATION

Saturday morning, May 10.

Dear Flora,

We are going to Walnut Mountain this afternoon to gather some wild flowers. We have a telescope with which we can have a fine view of the surrounding country. We shall be very much pleased to have you go with us. If you can go, we will call for you at two o'clock. Do go.

Yours affectionately,
Wilhelmina.

Please answer by bearer.

REPLY

My dear Wilhelmina,

I shall be delighted to go with you this afternoon, and will be ready at the time appointed.

Flora.

Leavenworth, Kansas,
Sept. 6, 1902.

Dear Frank,

I suppose you are attending school now; but can't you come in from the country Friday after school and stay with me until Saturday afternoon, or, what would be better, until Monday morning?

The Epworth League will hold their meeting at our house on Friday evening, and they will have recitations, songs, plays, etc. I think you will enjoy the meeting very much, and I am sure we shall all enjoy having you with us. Do come if you can.

Your friend,
Henry Watson.

90 West End Avenue, New York City, N. Y.,
Oct. 17, 1902.

My dear Mr. Collins,

Dr. Dupont and some friends of his and mine will dine with me on Saturday next at six o'clock, and we shall feel highly honored and pleased by your company.

With the greatest respect, I am,
Yours truly,
W. J. Wineman.

REPLY

Middletown, N. Y.,
Oct. 17, 1902.

My dear Mr. Wineman,

It will give me great pleasure to dine with you on Saturday, and I shall feel not only honored but delighted to be present.

Very truly yours,
J. A. Collins.

LESSON CV

LETTER-WRITING (Continued)

NOTE OF EXCUSE

Will Prof. Dann kindly excuse Henry from school to-day, and greatly oblige his mother, Mrs. M. Wright?

Tuesday morning, Oct. 14.

NOTE WITH GIFT

Miss Hall presents her compliments to Miss Widemeyer, and begs her to accept this little memento with best wishes for the New Year.

Academy Street,
Jan. 1, 1903.

NOTE OF INTRODUCTION

Mr. J. R. Andrews,
Trustee of School District No. 9, Fallsburgh, N. Y.
Dear Sir,

Miss Endicott is desirous of securing a position as teacher of your school. She possesses a First Grade Certificate, which gives evidence of superior intellectual qualifications. The importance of having children trained in habits of order, neatness, and propriety of conduct, in connection with intellectual training, cannot be overestimated. In these respects you will find her equally valuable.

I consider her a teacher worthy of your highest consideration.

Yours truly,
J. W. Davenport.

EXAMPLES OF ADVERTISEMENTS

WANTED—A young woman to do general housework. Only a well-qualified person need apply.
104 Lexington Street.

WANTED—By a boy of fifteen, a situation to work for board and washing while attending the High School.
J. E. Potter, Crary, Minn.

FOR SALE—One second-hand bicycle, little used.
Call at 47 West Houston St., New York City.

LESSON CVI

NOTES

INDIVIDUAL NOTE. NEGOTIABLE

$100. Monticello, Nov. 8, 1902.

Sixty days after date I promise to pay James Quinn or order one hundred dollars at the Monticello National Bank. Value received.

John M. Wintage.

NOTE NOT NEGOTIABLE

$45.00. Mountaindale, Nov. 1, 1902.

Six months from date I promise to pay Jas. Jenkins Forty-Five Dollars, Value received, with interest from date.

Henry Chamberlin.

A promissory note is a formal written promise to pay a certain sum of money at a specified future time.

The face of a note is the amount for which it is drawn.

The payment of a note is due at the expiration of the time mentioned.

If the last day is a holiday, then the note is legally due according to the laws of the State in which it is made.

The person who signs the note is called the DRAWER or MAKER.

The person to whom the note is payable is called the PAYEE.

The person who has legal possession of the note is called the HOLDER.

The words *value received* are evidence of a consideration given by the PAYEE of the note.

If the words *with interest* are inserted, then interest is due on the note from the date when it was drawn.

Sometimes a Due Bill is given instead of a note. It is not transferable.

DUE BILL

$100. Buffalo, N. Y., July 5, 1902.

Due Charles H. Pennypacker, on demand, One Hundred Dollars. Value received.

James C. Penelope.

A due bill is a brief written acknowledgment of a debt. It is not payable to order and cannot be transferred by indorsement.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a promissory note? 2. What is meant by *the face of a note?* 3. When is a note legally due? 4. Who is the drawer? 5. Who is the payee? 6. Why is it necessary to insert *value received?* 7. When does a note draw interest? 8. What is a due bill? 9. How does it differ from a note?

Give a general talk about notes.

LESSON CVII

CHECKS AND RECEIPTS

CHECKS (BLANK)

No. 1. New York, 190 .
Nassau National Bank
Pay to the order of
Dollars.
$.....

No. 2. New York, Nov. 8, 1904.

NASSAU NATIONAL BANK

Pay to the order of James H. Dunn
Forty-six Dollars.
$46. Cyrenus W. Longfellow.

A bank check is an order on a bank, by a person who has money deposited therein, for a part or the whole of it. If the check is drawn payable to order, it may be transferred from one person to another.

Checks are usually numbered when they are drawn.

RECEIPTS

$22\frac{38}{100}$. Newark, N. J., Oct. 5, 1902.

Received of James Keough Twenty-Two $\frac{38}{100}$ Dollars to apply on account.

James C. Cronin.

$75. Muncie, Ind., Oct. 3, 1902.

Received of H. K. Roland Seventy-Five Dollars in full of all demands to date.

Irving G. Benjamin.

RECEIPTED BILL

Ithaca, Oct. 1, 1902.

Miss Helen M. Castello

To Jennie Whitcomb, Dr.

For ten lessons in Vocal Music $10.

Received payment.

Jennie Whitcomb.

LESSON CVIII

GEORGE WASHINGTON

George Washington, the leader of the American Revolution and first President of the United States, was born near Pope's Creek, a small tributary of the Potomac, in Westmoreland County, Virginia, Feb. 22, 1732, and died at Mount Vernon, Dec. 14, 1799.

George Washington, while a boy of 13, wrote a manuscript entitled "Rules of Civility and Decent Behaviour in Company and Conversation." It is not known whether he compiled them or composed them. Probably they were selected. There is no doubt that these rules of propriety and morals controlled his conduct through life.

His studies at school were reading, writing, arithmetic, book-

keeping, and surveying. At the age of 16 he was engaged in surveying large estates of land in the wilderness. He kept a diary and recorded daily events, besides writing many letters to his relatives and friends. For three years he was engaged in surveying during the summer, and lived at home, at Mount Vernon, during the winter. In this way George received a thorough, practical business education, besides being trained in habits of frugality and industry.



Physically he was very strong, and he excelled in athletic exercises. His father died when he was 12 years of age; and his mother believed that justice, veracity, and sterling honor were as necessary to his character as scholarly attainments. In this way his early training was a preparation for a great and eventful life.

George Washington was Commander-in-chief of the army during the American Revolution, and was twice elected President of the United States. He is called the Father of his Country. His life was a model of circumspection and prudence in word

and deed. It may be said of him that he was the greatest of good men and the best of great men.

LESSON CIX

DEFINITIONS

Character. The principles and motives that govern a person's life constitute a person's character in a community; the estimate put upon a person's business, social, and political relations in life.

Industry. A diligent attention to any employment or pursuit in life, bodily or mental; exertion of any kind employed for the creation of value.

Frugality. That careful management of anything valuable in which a person expends nothing unnecessarily, and applies what is used to profitable purposes; thrift; habits of life without extravagance.

Justice. The rendering to every one his due or rights; just treatment.

Veracity. Habitual observance of truth; truthfulness.

Attainments. Those things which are acquired by effort, mental or physical.

Circumspection. Attention to all the facts and circumstances in detail in a case; proper caution; watchfulness.

Prudence. Wisdom in the way of caution in the conduct of affairs generally; careful method of doing anything. (Web. Int. Dict.)

QUESTIONS

1. Where was George Washington born? 2. Where did he die? 3. How old was he at his death? 4. What public positions did he hold? 5. What was he called? 6. How does he compare with other men? 7. What kind of education did he receive? 8. How old was he when his father died? 9. Besides his studies in school what else did his mother consider was essential for him to possess? 10. What is the

meaning of character? of attainments? of frugality? of industry? of justice? of veracity? of honor? of circumspection? of prudence?

Tell in a connected manner what you have learned about Washington.

Write a composition about the life of Washington in the manner of your talk about him without referring to the book.

There is a story about Washington and the cherry tree when he was a little boy. Can you write a composition about it?

LESSON CX

MORE ABOUT WASHINGTON

In the previous lesson you learned a short biographical sketch of George Washington. Write answers to the following questions:

1. Why was Washington called the Father of his Country?
2. Why did the American people have so much confidence in him?
3. If he had not possessed ability and uprightness of character, do you think he would have been chosen Commander-in-chief of the army, and later President of the United States?
4. Do you think the rules of conduct which he observed in early life, and the wise counsels of his mother in connection with his early training, were necessary to make him become a great and good man? Why?
5. Why are good habits and a diligent application of the mind in youth of advantage to every person later in life?
6. Tell why it is necessary, in reading the biographies of great men, to consider the causes which made them great.
7. Tell in what way you think you have been benefited by reading the biography of George Washington.

8. In reading, why is it necessary that you should be familiar with the meaning of the words used?

WRITTEN EXERCISE

At your seat write as fully as you can answers to the eight questions asked in this lesson.

NOTE.—If you have studied this and the two previous lessons carefully, you will be able to stand and give a connected talk about Washington.

When you can do this, you should, in a similar manner, be prepared to read about any other great man and write a composition or short biographical sketch of his life.

LESSON CXI

VIEW OF MOUNT VERNON

Mount Vernon, the home of George Washington, is situated on the right bank of the Potomac River, in Fairfax County, Virginia, 15 miles from the city of Washington. The mansion is beautifully situated on a height crowned with trees and commanding a fine view of the Potomac. It was built by George Washington's eldest brother Lawrence, who settled there in 1743. Washington enlarged and improved it. The house is 96 feet long and two stories high, with a lofty portico extending along the whole front. In front of the house sloping to the river is a lawn of five or six acres. Behind the house is a large flower-garden which was laid out by Washington and is still preserved as he left it.

The family vault is on the farm some distance from the house, at the edge of a deep wooded dale.

Washington at his death bequeathed the property to Bushrod Washington, from whom it passed into the hands of John A. Washington. By him it was sold to the Ladies' Mount Vernon Association. There are two hundred acres of land connected with the mansion.

Thousands visit the tomb of Washington every year. It is



MOUNT VERNON, THE HOME OF WASHINGTON.

intended that the place shall be kept sacred to the memory of Washington for all time to come.

QUESTIONS

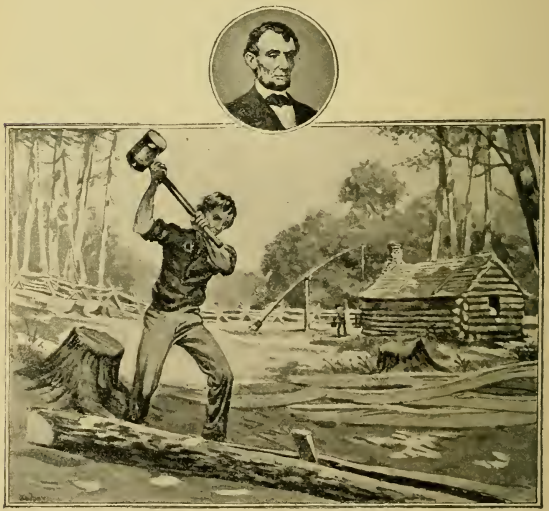
1. Where is Mount Vernon? 2. For what is it noted? 3. To whom does it now belong? 4. For what purpose is it kept by them? 5. By whom is it visited? 6. Why do the American people take so much interest in this place?

Give in a connected manner a description of Mount Vernon. From memory write a description of Mount Vernon. Add whatever you may have learned about the place from other sources.

LESSON CXII

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Abraham Lincoln, an American lawyer and statesman, and President of the United States during the Civil War, was born in Hodgenville, Ky., Feb. 12, 1809, and was assassinated in Ford's Theater,



Washington, D. C., by J. Wilkes Booth, on Good Friday night, April 14, 1865.

His ancestors, who were Quakers, went from Bucks County, Pa., to Buckingham, Va. Thomas Lincoln, the father of Abraham, was born in Virginia, and in 1806 married Nancy Hanks, also a native of Virginia. Soon after he moved to Kentucky, where Abraham Lincoln was born. Later Thomas Lincoln moved to

Spencer County, Ind. In 1830, Thomas Lincoln removed to Macon County, Ill., and Abraham helped to build a log cabin for the family and to split rails enough to fence ten acres of land.

In his youth Abraham Lincoln went to school at intervals, and these opportunities amounted in the aggregate to about one year. But he studied at home and read such books as were within his reach. He studied law, was elected to the legislature, and later to the presidency of the United States.

Abraham Lincoln was six feet four inches in height, and was a very strong man. He occupied the first rank as a clear, concise, logical speaker. As President of the United States, he was the right man in the right place, and one of the greatest of statesmen. His life is evidence of what may be accomplished by patient perseverance, industrious habits, and a frugal, temperate life.

QUESTIONS

1. Where was Abraham Lincoln born? 2. Who were his ancestors? 3. What were his opportunities to acquire an education? 4. When was he President of the United States? 5. Where was he assassinated? 6. What lesson may be learned from his life?

LESSON CXIII

ABRAHAM LINCOLN (Continued)

A letter written by Abraham Lincoln to a lady who lost her five sons in the Civil War.

This letter, it is said, has been engrossed and hung in one of the halls of Oxford University, England, as a specimen of pure English and elegant diction.

The nobility of thought, and the beauty and simplicity of expression, in this letter should be carefully studied by you.

From your dictionary learn the meaning of the most important words in this letter until you fully comprehend its import or signification. Study it until you are deeply impressed by the noble, beautiful, and touching language which the heart of the President prompted him to use.

Dear Madam:—

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the adjutant-general of Massachusetts, that you were the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the battlefield. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any word of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming.

But I cannot refrain from tendering to you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Very respectfully yours,
Abraham Lincoln.

LESSON CXIV

FORMATION OF WORDS

Words in English are PRIMITIVE, or DERIVATIVE, SIMPLE, or COMPOUND.

A stem is a word or part of a word taken from some other language, in which it may be either primitive or derivative. It cannot be used alone in English; but when united with a suffix or a prefix or both it forms derivative words.

Observe the formation of the following derivative words, formed from the stem *ject* and suffixes and prefixes, their meanings, and the meaning of the derivative words formed from them.

PREFIX.	MEANING.	STEM.	MEANING.	DERIVATIVE WORD.	MEANING.
De,	down	+ject,	to cast =	deject,	to cast down.
E,	out	+ject,	to cast =	eject,	to cast out.
In,	in or into	+ject,	to cast =	inject,	to cast into.
Re,	back	+ject,	to cast =	reject,	to cast back.
Pro,	forward	+ject,	to cast =	project,	to cast forward.

To the word *deject* we may add the suffix *ed*, forming the perfect participle *dejected*, meaning cast down. Add *ed* to the other derivative words.

Deject + ed = dejected, cast down.
Eject + ed = ejected, cast out.
Inject + ed = injected, cast into.
Reject + ed = rejected, cast back, or out.
Project + ed = projected, cast forward.

If to the word *deject* we add *er* and *or* to the other words, meaning one who or that which, we have,

Deject + er = dejecter, one who casts down.
Eject + or = ejector, one who ejects, or that which ejects.
Inject + or = injector, one who or that which injects.
Reject + or = rejector, one who or that which rejects.
Project + or = projector, one who projects.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a primitive word? a derivative word? 2. What is a stem? 3. How are words in English formed from stems? 4. Give the formation of the words deject, eject, inject, reject, project. 5. Give the formation of the words dejected, ejected, injected, rejected, projected. 6. Give the formation of the words dejecter, ejector, injector, rejector, projector. 7. What is a suffix? 8. What is a prefix?

LESSON CXV

FORMATION OF WORDS (Continued)

	PREFIX.	MEANING.	STEM.	MEANING.	DERIVATIVE WORD.	MEANING.
1.	Contra,	against	+ dict,	to speak =	contradict,	to speak against.
2.	Inter,	between	+ dict,	to speak =	interdict,	spoken between; a prohibition.
3.	Pre,	before	+ dict,	to speak =	predict,	to say beforehand.

PREFIX.	MEANING.	STEM.	MEANING.	DERIVATIVE WORD.	MEANING.
4. De,	down	+scribe, (script)	to write	=describe,	to write down; to give an account
5. Circum,	round	+scribe,	to write	=circumscribe,	to write a boundary; to encircle.
6. Sub,	under	+scribe,	to write	=subscribe,	to write under.
7. Post,	after	+script,	written	=postscript,	written after.

Give the formation of each of the seven words, the meaning of the prefixes, and the stems; also the meaning of each of the derivative words.

LESSON CXVI

A FEW LATIN PREFIXES

Con, which forms *com*, *co*, *col*, *cor*, means Together; as,

contract, to draw together; collect, to gather together;
compel, to drive together; conjunction, a joining together.
coerce, to force together;

Contra, or Contro, means Against, or Counter; as,

contradict, to speak against; controvert, to turn against.
contravene, to come against;

Dis, or Di, means Away, or Apart; as,

dispel, to drive away; divert, to turn away.
dissect, to cut away;

E, or Ex, making also *ec*, *ef*, means Out; as,

eject, to cast out; excite, to summon out;
elect, to choose; ecstasy, a raising out;
exclude, to shut out; efface, to blot out.

Intro means In, Inward, or Within; as,

introduce, to lead in; introspect, to look within;
introvert, to turn inward; intromission, a sending in.

OB, which makes also *oc*, *of*, *op*, means Against; as,

obtrude, to thrust against;
occur, to run against;
offer, to bring against;
oppose, to place against;
object, to place against.

LESSON CXVII

LATIN PREFIXES (Continued)

PER means Through or By; as,

pervade, to go through;
perchance, by chance;
per cent, by the hundred:
perplex, to tangle together, or to entangle thoroughly.

RE means Again, or Back; as,

review, to view again;
repel, to drive back.

RETRO means Backward, Backwards, or Back; as,

retroactive, acting backward;
retrograde, going backward;
retrocede, to cede back.

SE means Aside or Apart; as,

seduce, to lead aside;
secede, to go apart.

SEMI means Half; as,

semicolon, half a colon;
semicircle, half a circle.

SUB, which makes *suf*, *sug*, *sup*, and *sus*, means Under, and sometimes Up; as,

subscribe, to write under;
suffusion, the state of being suffused;
suggest, to convey under;
supply, to put under;
surreption, a creeping under;
sustain, to hold up;
subject, to cast under.

SUPER means Over, or Above; as,

superfluous, flowing over;
supernatant, swimming above;
superlative, carried over, or carrying over;
supervise, to overlook; to oversee.

TRANS means Beyond, Over, To another state or place; as,

transgress, to pass beyond or over;
transcend, to climb over;
transform, to change to another shape;
transmit, to send to another place;

JUN 29 1904

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